The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 10, 1898.

The Week.

The appropriation of $50,000,000 in a lump sum by Congress for the national defence will probably make for peace rather than war. Spain does not want war with the United States, and will want it less than ever when she sees that American sentiment is united in support of the President. There is probably some politics in the appropriation also. It gives the Republican party the lead in preparing the country for any emergency that may arise. The Democrats must join the procession, but their place is necessarily in the rear. The effect of an expenditure of $50,000,000 in the present state of the national finances, without any increase of revenue, would be so disastrous that we may safely reckon that no more of it will be actually spent than is necessary. It is true that we have the money in hand, but it is the remains of the last $100,000,000 bond issue of the Cleveland Administration. The gold reserve in the Treasury is now large, but it is liable to depletion at any time in consequence of the excess of expenses over receipts in the general fund; and whenever it is observed to be sinking we may look for a renewal of trepidation in the money market. Nobody has a clearer perception of these facts than Secretary Gage and the Republican leaders in the House. The latter, some little time ago, cut down the estimates for fortifications from about $11,000,000 to $4,100,000, which is the best possible guarantee that the money now voted with such a lavish hand will not be spent without due consideration. Of course, all such movements as this $50,000,000 appropriation are charged with a certain amount of danger. They feed the yellow journals, cause temporary declines in the stock market, but are not necessarily provocative of war. We fail to observe any increase of Jingoism in consequence of it. Your true Jingo politician is one who wants war when there is a clear sky and no great probability that his demands will be gratified; but when the winds do blow he generally goes below.

The enormous danger that lies in an unbridled press—the danger of plunging nations into war in mere wantonness or as a means of making money by the sale of extras—is recognized by the great Powers of the continent of Europe, which have laws adapted to the purpose of suppressing incendiary publications, and sending the offending editors to prison, not arbitrarily, but with very little delay. We have no such laws here, because we have no strong neighbors on this continent. If we were flanked on one side by a Power like France and on another by one like Germany or Russia, a press censorship would be just as necessary as a Health Department. The right to publish matter tending to bring on a war, whether the matter itself be true or false, is not a whit more sacred than the right to land from a ship without first passing the scrutiny of a quarantine officer. The three thousand miles distance that lies between us and Spain muffles the defiances hurled by our yellow journals and the answering ones of the *Globo*, the *Correo*, and the *Imparcial* of Madrid, leaving them free to "scoop" each other and the public without much harm. One of our yellows says that its Madrid dispatch of Thursday was stopped by the censorship—for good reasons, no doubt. It is evident, too, that much matter must have been suppressed before, since Friday's papers contained a deal of hot stuff telegraphed from London from the Madrid papers of February 17, regarding the resignation of Minister De Lome—matter that would have been printed under head-lines from one to two inches high and a foot long if it had been fresh, but which is now tucked away in an obscure corner without any headline at all. The censorship has its uses.

Our usually cool contemporary, the Chicago *Tribune*, follows up its article declaring that "war exists" with one showing why it ought to exist, the inference being that it exists figuratively, only, at the present time. A figurative war is cheaper than an actual one, and therefore to be preferred on some accounts. The *Tribune's* reasons why war ought to exist are of a varied character, implying great penetration on the part of their discoverer into the deeper springs of human action. One of these is that "it [war] would wipe out mugwumpery, which is trying to choke out the vigorous life of the nation." This is said to be one of the desirable consequences of a war with Spain. But why not of a war with England, or Japan, or Turkey, or Chili, or Germany? Is there anything about a war with Spain that should make it peculiarly destructive to mugwumpery? As for war in the abstract, if we can imagine such a thing, its most pronounced advocate hitherto has been the Hon. Theodore Roosevelt, who is also, in the opinion of many Republicans of the Empire State, strongly tinged with mugwumpery. Indeed, the Chicago *Tribune* has been under suspicions of the same sort. Now, we object strongly to wiping out mugwumps by means of a war with Spain. But the wiping-out process, according to the *Tribune*, would not only stop the mugwumps. "It would be the end," it tells us, "of the 16 to 1 abomination." Really it does amaze us to learn that the mugwumps and the Bryanites are both to disappear in consequence of a war. Why are we to look for this result? "Because," says our Chicago contemporary, "the people, seeing the country in the condition of war, would soon make an end of any conspiracy to swindle creditors with 44-cent dollars." There is a certain lack of consecutiveness here which implies that the writer has forgotten that the first act, or nearly the first, in our civil war was the suspension of specie payments and the issue of an irredeemable currency which sank gradually so that in July, 1864, we were using 35-cent instead of 44-cent dollars.

A curious illustration of the confusion of mind about governmental expenditures which generally prevails is afforded by an editorial article in the Columbia (S. C.) *State*, one of the best newspapers in the South, on the business aspects of a war with Spain, particularly as regards its part of the country. It holds that "many productive industries would be greatly stimulated; the transportation of men and war stores would increase the earnings of the railroads; provisions would rise in price, benefiting the farmers who make a surplus; there would be a large expenditure of money by the Government, and this would at once vivify trade; work will be easier to get, whether in the army or in places vacated by those who may enter the army; those dependent on the killed will be pensioned; they will not be left to starve, like the dependents of the victims of peace." From first to last there is not a suggestion that it is going to cost anybody a cent to pay for the great stimulation of industries, the increased earnings of the railroads, the pay of the soldiers, and the pensions to the wounded or disabled and those dependent on them. Apparently the editor of the *State* thinks that this would all be clear profit, which we shall miss if we escape war.

The Madrid newspaper *El Nacional* proposes that the island of Cuba be sold to the United States on condition that we assume the Spanish debt appertaining to it, that we allow Spain to enjoy for a certain time her tariff privileges, and that we guarantee life and property to the Spanish inhabitants of the island. The first of these conditions—the assumption of the Spanish-Cuban debt, amounting to $400,000,000 at the lowest calculation—is the only one worth much attention. Supposing that Spain might, at some time in the near future, come to

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the opinion which the *Nacional* advances, is it at all likely that Congress would assume that debt—a gold debt, by the way—and make the taxpayers of the United States pay the interest on it? The chances of such a step are not one in a hundred. The truth is, that if the island were offered to us as a free gift we should be by no means in haste to accept it. Possession of it as a part of our assets has never been a motive with the people at large, although a few persons who have pecuniary interests there would be glad, of course, to have their property put under a flag capable of protecting it. The spur that pricks us on has been the spectacle of a people near our shores fighting for independence. This is a motive which bears no mercenary tinge. It may be a mistaken one in the sense that we have too hastily assumed that the insurgents are "the people of Cuba," but it is not soiled with the desire of gain. We wish that Cuba may be free, but if it were free, we should be not more eager to annex it than we are to annex Hawaii. Therefore we should be not at all inclined to pay money for it. Further discussion of the subject may be postponed till there is some evidence that the *Nacional* represents the opinion of Spain in making the suggestion of sale, which is scarcely credible. We do not believe that any government could hold power at the present time which should even entertain the proposal of selling the island. Yet the time may come when Spain will be compelled to drop it, either with or without compensation.

The Hawaiian annexationists in Congress are evidently puzzled to know what to do next. The Senate committee on foreign relations discussed the subject for hours on Saturday, and finally decided to let the treaty remain before the Senate a while longer. The more ardent advocates of the scheme are exceedingly loath to abandon the treaty, although nobody any longer pretends that a two-thirds vote can be secured. They recognize that the failure of the treaty not only will prevent annexation by the easiest method, but will foreshadow the defeat of the project by any method. A joint resolution must take its chances along with other legislative matters before the Senate; and, worst of all, it must encounter public discussion before that body, which is what the annexationists most dread. Then, if it shall ever get through the Senate, the resolution must go to the House, to encounter the hostility of the Speaker and other prominent Republicans, and to be subjected again to the dreaded ordeal of debate. The fatal difficulty in the way of the scheme is confessed by its friends to be the growing force of public opinion against it. The Washington correspondent of the *Tribune* reports that "it is apparent to the friends of the convention in the Senate that some steps must be taken at once to carry out the President's policy, if the impetus of public sentiment in favor of annexation is not to be materially lessened or practically lost." Here is a proper characterization of annexation as "the President's policy"—the party's policy having been defined in the St. Louis platform of 1896 as "control of the islands"—and a plain admission that whatever impetus the Administration gave its scheme last December, has been practically lost by three months of discussion. The Republican press is speaking more and more plainly regarding the President's indefensible course in this matter.

The Senate committee on commerce has, by a unanimous vote, made an adverse report upon the nomination of Henry Demas as Naval Officer for the Port of New Orleans. It is a curious circumstance that the anniversary of inauguration should thus coincide with an incident which strikingly illustrates the weakest side of Mr. McKinley's Presidential career. Demas is the most notorious reprobate among the host of disreputable men whom the Republican party in Louisiana has developed since the war. He is a negro who took to politics for "what there was in it" as soon as his race was given the suffrage, and has "made a good thing of it" during the quarter of a century since he started. He became a member of the Legislature in the reconstruction period, and was conspicuous for his corruption from the first. He was the paid agent of the Louisiana State Lottery in the Legislature, and received a stipend of $100 a month from that company for years, going regularly each pay-day to draw his money. Besides, he had two lottery offices given him by the company, which paid him additional sums in commissions on the sale of tickets. He was a Republican member of the State Senate when the governorship was in dispute between Packard, Republican, and Nicholls, Democrat, after the election of 1876, and was one of the four Republicans who finally abandoned the Packard Legislature and joined the Nicholls body so as to give the latter a quorum, receiving therefor $10,000. Demas displayed the same qualities of treachery and corruption twenty years later. When the canvass for delegates to the Republican national convention in 1896 opened, he professed to be an ardent supporter of Mr. Reed, took money from the latter's friends to defray the expenses of the campaign, and wrote the Speaker a letter promising his support. Later, he "flopped" to McKinley, and openly boasted that he had "thrown" Reed, and would be rewarded therefor with a good federal office.

All these charges against Demas are made by Louisiana Republicans of high standing, who have also shown that he is as disreputable in private life as in public. Notwithstanding this information, Mr. McKinley appointed Demas Naval Officer during the recess of Congress last September, to the disgrace of the civil service of the nation for nearly half a year. The President delayed sending the nomination to the Senate as long as possible, in the hope that the storm of public indignation would "blow over," and the entire influence of the Administration has been exerted to secure confirmation. Despite all that Senator Hanna could do, however, every Republican member of the commerce committee was constrained to join with every Democrat in making an adverse report.

The Bryan Democrats in Kentucky are at it again. They have passed a bill in one branch of the Legislature to prevent the making of contracts payable in gold, and to make gold and silver a legal tender in payment of debts on equal terms. The latter clause is of no consequence, unless it seeks to enlarge the legal-tender acts of Congress, in which case it is a mystery. Kentucky has not the power to coin money. Nor, in our belief, has it, or any State, the power to say that people shall not make contracts with each other payable in gold, or in tobacco, or in building-stone, if they choose to do so. The only one of the legislatures in session in 1897 to pass an anti-gold contract law was that of Washington, which enacted that all debts are payable in lawful money or currency of the United States, regardless of any provision in the contract of indebtedness. Like measures were introduced in Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Missouri, and Tennessee. In the last-named State the measure was adopted by the House. If Kentucky goes on and passes it, we hope that somebody will bring the constitutionality of the measure before the courts at once. It will not be necessary to warn capitalists to keep away from a State which betrays an intention to cheat creditors, and is prevented from doing so only by the superior authority of the federal Government.

Everything now indicates that "harmony" is to prevail among the Pennsylvania Republicans. The situation was this: Quay wanted to pick out his own man for Governor—he has never yet realized his ambition to own a Governor—and to reëlect himself to the Senate; Dave Martin of Philadelphia and Chris Magee of Pittsburgh naturally thought this was a little too much, and threatened to make trouble for the boss; many Republican business men were anxious to beat Quay's favorite for the governorship. Under these circumstances Quay has coolly thrown over this favorite,

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and notified Martin and Magee that they may pick out the Governor if all hands will turn in and reëlect him to the Senate, which is perfectly satisfactory to the Philadelphia and Pittsburgh leaders. No further controversy among the Republican politicians is expected; and, with "harmony" restored in the management of the party, the business men who have been protesting against bossism will doubtless lose their interest in the independent movement, Quay will get another six years in the Senate, and amicable arrangements for the government of the State will be made between Quay, Martin, and Magee.

The verdict of the town elections continues to be heavily against the Republican party in this State. In the 25 counties in which elections have been held, the Democrats have made a total gain of 75 Supervisors and the Republicans a total gain of 3, leaving a net gain of 72 to the Democrats, as compared with the elections of 1896. The drift of popular sentiment is, in fact, all in the direction of the Democratic party, and is the natural result of two years of Platt-Black-Payn administration at Albany. That the warning is not heeded by the Governor is shown by the appointment which he made last week for Superintendent of Prisons, Mr. Collins of Troy. All that is said in disparagement of Mr. Collins may not be true, but there seems to be no dispute of the fact that he is a thoroughgoing machine politician of the type which ought not to be trusted with the very large amount of patronage associated with the prison department of the State. The appointment is, in fact, in line with that of Lou Payn, showing that the Governor is still determined not to yield to "irresponsible assault or intolerant clamor." The idea that he can carry the State by strengthening the grip of the machine upon his party seems to have complete possession of him.

The main reason for Gov. Black's willingness to concede most of the new primary methods which the reformers are advocating, is to be found, doubtless, in the provisions which he has had introduced for the holding of special primaries this year. The regular method, after this year, will be to afford all voters an opportunity to enroll on the regular days of registration. Of course, since the primaries to elect delegates to the State conventions this year must be held before the registration of voters, some especial arrangement must be made for an enrolment upon which to hold those primaries. The provisions advocated by the Governor are for enrolment by certificate from April 17 to 30, and a general public enrolment for all parties on May 10. This will, of course, be a very different thing from offering to every voter an opportunity to enroll when he registers, and it will be much easier for the machine men to get a majority in such an enrolment. If the reformers accept the plan, enroll their names, go into the Republican primaries, and are outvoted in them, the result will be that a Black delegation will be chosen to the State convention, and they will be deprived of all excuse for revolting and supporting an independent ticket. In other words, they will be "harmonized" into silence. The Governor is willing to take the chances of machine injury in the more remote future if he can secure this advantage now.

Why should Senator Page, who is a Republican, favor a change in the law which would enable Tammany Hall to put Paddy Divver upon the City Magistrates' bench? Why should he be able to get a Republican committee to report favorably his bill making this change, and why should there be danger of its passage through a Republican Legislature? These are questions which strike at the very foundation of Republican politics in this city, that foundation being an offensive and defensive alliance between Tammany and machine Republicans for "spoils." Mr. Page's bill amends the present excellent law, which provides that no person shall be eligible to the City Magistrates' bench who has not been a practising lawyer for at least five years, in such a way as to make eligible any man who has served as a Police Justice for two years. The only object of this change is to lower the standard of qualification—that is, to admit to the bench the very class of men who were tipped off it when the old system was abolished in 1895. Mr. Page has the impudence to say, "Tammany will not put back on the bench the same kind of men—Tammany would not dare to," which is a novel view for a Republican to take. He also says: "It is absurd to require that a Police Justice shall have had five years' experience as a lawyer. Joseph H. Choate may be an able lawyer, but he would not make an able Police Justice." This is the usual Tammany argument—that because the police courts sit in judgment upon toughs and blackguards, you should have toughs and blackguards to dispense justice in them.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the Nebraska freight-rate case marks the swing of the pendulum in the opposite direction from that of the Granger cases of twenty years ago. Although full control over railroad rates was not, in the latter cases, conceded to State Legislatures, it seemed probable that eventually it would be. In the Nebraska case it is declared that in no event can a State Legislature deprive a railroad of net earnings altogether, if the business offered to it is sufficient to yield such earnings, and that if necessary the courts will inspect and to some extent regulate the rates charged for traffic even when wholly within the limits of a State. "While," says the opinion, "rates for the transportation of persons and property within the limits of a State are primarily for its determination, the question whether they are so unreasonably low as to deprive the carrier of its property without such compensation as the Constitution secures, and therefore are without due process of law, cannot be so conclusively determined by the Legislature of the State, or by the regulations adopted under its authority, that the matter may not become the subject of judicial inquiry." This is only another way of saying that railroad property cannot be confiscated by a State any more than that of an individual can be—a proposition that will surely be sustained by the public opinion of the country at large, and probably by that of the State to which it particularly applies, as soon as the people shall have calmly reflected upon it.

A very ludicrous libel suit against the London *Daily News* was tried recently before the Lord Chief Justice, and disposed of by him in his usual effective and unceremonious manner. A solicitor at law, who had been at one time engaged to a girl, but had been thrown over by her, had persisted in his attentions to such an annoying extent that she had appealed to the authorities, and had had him arrested and put under bonds to keep the peace. In its account of these proceedings, the *Daily News* had set him down as a "Love-Stricken Solicitor." This was one of the causes of complaint. When it was put before the Lord Chief Justice, he said: "Well, I presume that is true. I do not see any excuse for him unless it is." When next complaint was made that the report of the proceedings had been so much condensed that it was incomplete, the Lord Chief Justice asked: "Do you mean to say that a newspaper is bound to put in every word that is said? Why, it is a very mild report." When the counsel for the plaintiff, seeing the attitude of the Lord Chief Justice, said he should be content if the jury were permitted to say whether in their opinion there was a libel or not, his Lordship convulsed the court-room by saying: "I am not going to rule that it was not a libel. It is for the jury. If you wish it, I am quite prepared to put the question to the jury; but if I do, it will be with the strongest intimation on my part that they would make themselves ridiculous if they found that there is any libel. You cannot make bricks without straw." The jury at once volunteered the information that they were convinced there was no libel, and judgment was entered for the defendant, with costs.

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CUBAN AUTONOMY OR INDEPENDENCE?

A foreign critic has said that the United States and Spain seem to be rushing into a war with each other against the will of the governments of both countries. This is true in case the governments of the two countries are tolerably but not absolutely firm in their resolve to avert it. If they are really determined to prevent it, there is a plain way to accomplish that result. The United States, fortunately, has never committed itself to the opinion that the rebellion in Cuba has the support or sympathy of a majority of the bona-fide inhabitants of the island. The postulate that they are a majority is extremely dubious. Indeed, the evidence runs strongly to the contrary. On the other hand, we are committed to the opinion that Spain ought to grant autonomy to the island, and hence that the measure of autonomy now granted ought to have a fair trial. The rebels have refused it. They have refused even to consider it. They have put to death one Spanish officer who had sought a conference with them on the subject, and have threatened death to any others who may make a similar attempt. In rejecting the offer of autonomy they are "banking" on the United States, expecting to drag us into a war on the margin of difference between autonomy and entire independence.

This raises the question, What is meant by Cuban independence? Does anybody imagine that if all Spanish officials and Spanish troops were at once withdrawn, quiet would be restored to the island? Would such a step be the prelude to peace, or to a new revolution with two or possibly three presidents and legislative bodies struggling for the mastery of the island? Is it imaginable that the cultivated people of Havana and the property-owning classes of the other cities would tamely submit to the leaders of guerilla bands, some of whom were brigands by trade before the present revolt began? Independence has come to have a meaning in our ears derived from our own war of independence, but no such analogy can be found in the condition of Cuba. Our ancestors of the Revolution had a government, an army, a Congress, and a fair majority of the people in each and all of the colonies. They had George Washington for a leader, whose name alone stamps that struggle with a character of sublimity. They had a diplomatic standing in the world and an alliance with France, offensive and defensive.

The difference between our ancestors and the guerilla bands of Cuba is enormous; yet the word independence is lightly applied to the latter as though the consequences of granting independence to Cuba would be the same that they were in our own case. The truth is that nobody can say what new scenes of disorder would result from such a step. Judging from the example of the other Spanish-American colonies, half a century of intestine strife and bloodshed would ensue unless we should seize the island and impose peace on the warring factions. Would that be an easy thing to do? Suppose that the rebels do not like our rule, as very likely they would not after trying it a while. Are we to furnish the troops to put them down and restore order? Suppose that the other side, the opponents of the present rebellion, should not like our rule, and that their discontent should end in a fresh revolt. Should we bombard or blockade Havana thereupon?

These are questions for our Government to consider. Shall we plunge into the calamity of war for the sake of a few straggling bands who are hiding in mountain fortresses, burning cane-fields and sugar-mills, and stopping the industries of the peaceful inhabitants, and who probably represent only a minority of the people of the island, and who refuse even to consider the offer of autonomy which Spain has offered them at our instance? It seems incredible that such a step can be desired by any thinking person in the United States. We believe, in fact, that it is not desired by any considerable number, whether they may be classed as thinking or unthinking. We believe that a campaign of education and of religion—for it is evident that the clergy of the country, both Protestant and Catholic, are almost a unit against an aggressive war—would result in an overwhelming victory for the Administration if it takes firm ground that autonomy must be fairly tried before any further steps are taken on our part.

We are very near the parting of the ways, where we may take a step that will change our entire destiny. The possible consequences of a war, not in self-defence, but of our own seeking, are so tremendous that no man who holds the issues in his hands can possibly be justified in taking the initiative in bringing on hostilities. The first thing that would happen would be the shattering of the prosperity which has just dawned upon us after the panic of 1893. We have already had forewarning of disaster in the sudden fall of United States 4 per cent. bonds of 1925, which declined four points within a few days after the explosion on the *Maine*. A similar decline of British consols would have meant a general upheaval of Europe. Why was there so great a fall of our national securities on so small a provocation? Simply because everybody believes that with the very beginning of a war the gold standard would be put in jeopardy. We might or might not drop to the silver basis. We might even go lower than that, as we did during the civil war. It is the element of uncertainty that causes the mischief. There is a party pretending to be the majority that desires a depreciated currency, regards it as a good thing, and hence would seize every occasion and opportunity of war or peace to bring it about. No man can tell what would be the financial outcome of a war. All that we know now is that, as regards our standard of value, we are in a state of unstable equilibrium. This is the reason why our securities tumble so easily. This is the reason why people begin to hoard money in safe-deposit boxes as soon as any dark cloud appears on the horizon. Experienced bankers are of the opinion that several millions have been withdrawn from the channels of circulation for hoarding purposes since the explosion on the *Maine*. This is the reason why every little incident like the dispute about Consul-General Lee sends a tremor through the stock market and through all business circles.

THE DECLINE OF THE PORT.

The report of the Chamber of Commerce, made on the 3d of February, on the decline of the commerce of this port, followed the annual message from the Governor, recommending a commission of inquiry into the causes of this decline and into the best mode of arresting it. This again has been succeeded by the introduction of a bill in the Assembly by Mr. Laimbeer to carry out the Governor's suggestion. The report of the Chamber of Commerce makes only two recommendations, one that "the differentials" existing in the rates of railroad freights to Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Newport News should be abolished, and the other that our channels should be deepened. It showed that while there was an increase of more than $100,000,000 in exports over the whole country in 1897, there was a decrease of $23,000,000 at the port of New York. New York has lost in shipments of cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions, but has gained in the exportation of locomotives, cycles, and other merchandise. But the Chamber evidently attaches most importance among the causes of the decline to the railroad "differentials," and to the defects of the harbor.

It is always a little dangerous to suggest to New Yorkers that their prosperity is affected in any degree by moral as well as by material agencies, yet we cannot help saying that if the Governor's commission confines its inquiries about the decline of the port to "differentials" and channels, its report will be incomplete and therefore unsatisfactory. If the government of this city during the past twenty-five years, and the account we ourselves have been compelled to give of it, have had no effect on the business of the port, it is contrary to all human experience of ports and governments. This experience has shown that no port, however favorably situated, either as regards harbor or communi-

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cation with the interior, has long maintained its supremacy under bad government. Spain has several ports as good as New York. Constantinople has a better one, but none of them attracts much commerce. A large part of the attractions and advantages of all ports lies in the character of the officials with whom traders have to deal, their honesty and civility. It has always been so. Even in the Middle Ages, the Hanse Towns and Venice relied fully as much on the quality of their laws, the integrity of their rulers, and the soundness of their currency to preserve their business, as on their mercantile capacity.

Considering what has been known and believed about our harbor masters and health officers, for the last thirty years, the wonder is that so much foreign trade has reached us. For at least that period shipowners have been complaining of the way they had to bribe harbor masters in order to secure a convenient berth at our wharves and keep it. T. C. Platt was Quarantine Commissioner at this port, in defiance of the Governor, for seven years. Does any one believe that he was occupied during this period in promoting the commerce of the port, and making access to it easy? Even within two years we have known of a case in which an impudent and ignorant subordinate of the Health Officer boarded one of the large transatlantic liners in the upper bay, when the captain was on the bridge, directing the difficult progress of his ship through numerous craft steering in every direction. The Health Officer sent for him to come down to sign formal papers, on a lower deck, fully ten minutes away from his post. He naturally and properly refused. The result was a delay of his steamer so that she missed the transshipment of the lighter portion of her cargo to the West Indian liner which was leaving that day. There were no "differentials" here or want of water in the channel. The agent of the French Line had to confess before the Lexow committee that he had to bribe heavily even the policemen on the dock. Doubtless if the private records of every shipowner who uses the port were got at, it would be found that the amount he had to spend in corrupting the port officers, in order to be able to transact his business in peace and quiet—health officers, custom-house officers, harbor masters—had made a bad hole in his profits, leaving the annoyance quite out of the question.

It would be a little ridiculous if American merchants were to admit, even in fun, that the business of a great port could be successfully carried on for an indefinite period by inexperienced men, holding their places by short tenures, for reasons wholly political and in no way commercial, and expected to turn over a portion at least of their illicit gains to a political party. Does any one suppose Croker is interested in the growth of the port, or knows anything about the reasons why ports rise or decline? Why, Jenkins is "slated" for the next Health Officer, in complete disregard of his record in 1892. Nothing is more wonderful about our condition than the way in which we persuade ourselves that foreigners know nothing about all this, or even like it; that when a ship comes up the bay the captain is thinking of "differentials" and the depth of water, and not at all of the way in which the Health Boys, the Harbor Masters, and Quarantine Officer and the custom-house officers will deal with him. The remarks of Mr. Washington at the meeting of the Birth Committee a fortnight ago, showing how a Birth Celebration would advertise New York in foreign ports, were as good as anything in comic literature. Why, it is the best advertised city on earth, but what brings it advertisement is not the goodness of its port, or the uprightness of its merchants, or the riches of its rich men, but the badness of its government, the extraordinary spectacle of a municipality of the first order ruled by ignorance, incompetence, and corruption. We do not say this accounts wholly for the decline in our commerce, but we do say that any inquiry why our commerce has declined which leaves this out of account, will be partial and incomplete.

THE LONDON MUNICIPALITY.

The fight between the two parties in the municipal election in London is not difficult to understand. The Moderates simply represent the Conservatives and Lord Salisbury, and are opposed to a consolidated administration under one municipal government. They object to having the large and rich parishes like Kensington and Westminster cease to have control of their own revenue, and be obliged to share the burdens of the poorer parishes in the East End. They object to having the ground rents of the great landholders at the West End subjected to taxation for general municipal purposes. They object to the purchase of the street railways by the municipality. They object to the purchase of the water-works by the municipality. They object to having work done by the municipality directly, instead of by contractors. They object to the extensive schemes for housing the poor which the Progressives have on foot. Finally, the two parties are radically divided on the subject of religious education in the schools. In fact, it is radicalism and conservatism arrayed against each other.

As regards the first point, there is little doubt that the desire of the Conservatives to have the Council broken up is due chiefly to their fear that it would train up a set of politicians in the nature of bosses, who would convert it into a little parliament or Jacobin club, which would seek to overawe the Parliament at Westminster. For this reason Lord Salisbury has wished to substitute for it a set of little municipalities or "boroughs," each with its own taxation and the management of the greater part of its own affairs.

Moreover, the West End distinctly does not wish to take care of the East End if it can help it. The heavy taxpayers wish to have their taxes, if possible, spent on themselves. But behind all this there is the fear of growing socialism, the fear of some kind of levelling process, they do not well know what. As well as one can make out from the discussion which is constantly raging, however, there does not as yet appear to be anything in sight to dread, except the consolidation of the city into a great corporation in which the burdens will be equally distributed and the benefits also. Strange as it may appear to us, the question of the honesty or competency of the employees of the corporation has not once been raised during the canvass. It has not been charged that any one was unfit for his place, or got it through favor or corruption, or through being the favorite of an old pugilist in Whitechapel or Southwark. No one seems to expect to get a place through the election; there is no "slate." No "dead beat" or saloonkeeper talks of getting his dues at last out of the public, or of being able to lay up something for his old age. The discussion seems to have turned entirely on public questions. To be sure, the Liberals were generally on one side and the Tories on the other, but neither has discussed the sugar bounty, or the treaty with China, or the South African question. Both have talked of water-works, of taxation, of the employment of city labor, of the purchase of street railways, of education in schools, and of the needs of the poorer districts, but there has been no talk of imperial interests. The issues were not issues of war or peace, but of plain domestic concerns.

Much electioneering as there has been, it is not likely that Lord Salisbury's fears about the growth of politics will ever be realized, as long as there are no spoils. Places are to a politician what manure is to a plant. Before he becomes really dangerous to the public, you have to dig around him and dung him with "spoils." You have to let him know that if he "hustles" he will get something; that for the first time for months, it may be for years, he will receive regular wages; that his pay will no longer depend on diligence or industry of any description; that he will no longer be watched by any one who has anything to do with the work, and that if he pleases a boss somewhere who does not care how the work is done and never sees it, he may have an easy time. This state of things is not likely to arise in an English town for a good while, but it is the

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state of things which demagogues are trying to bring about in every democratic town in the world. Lord Salisbury shows his fear of it by complaining that so many men are already devoting their whole time to the work of the Council, although they serve without pay. He evidently thinks they are already concocting "politics."

There are undoubtedly some narrow ends of wedges in the administration, if we may judge from our experience. Men who really devote their whole time to the questions now before the Council may eventually devote their whole time to getting votes for the Council. The water companies and street-railroads may eventually "put up a job" on the Council, by paying a boss heavily for buying their enterprises at high rates, or for not buying them at low rates; or the great landowners may pay him for getting the Council to "let up" on the ground rents, or the contract system may be wholly abandoned, in order that the laborers of the Council may have time to deliberate on politics. But London probably thinks itself guaranteed against these things by the fact that the democratic world seems to be at last waking up about city government. Democracy begins to see that it is its manner of governing cities which is bringing disgrace on it, and may eventually ruin it; that "forewarned is forearmed." New York has probably given an invaluable lesson to all the cities in Christendom by showing what may result from trusting to luck.

FRENCH "EVIDENCE."

M. Demange, one of the leading men at the French bar, was, for the reason that he was eminent, chosen as the counsel of Dreyfus before the court-martial. He has made an extraordinary statement since the trial, in the *Matin*, a very respectable journal, which is copied entire in the *Temps*, which stands now at the head of the French press. We cannot reproduce it all textually, but we shall give a fair account of what he says.

When M. Demange was retained by Dreyfus's brother, he went to see Dreyfus in his prison, and asked him, not if he was innocent, for he assumed that he was, but if there was anything in the *dossier*—any document, that is to say—which might embarrass him when produced. Dreyfus denied that there was. M. Demange then satisfied himself that if the trial was public, acquittal was certain, and he directed all his efforts to avoiding a trial either wholly or partially secret. He determined, for this purpose, to agree to make no inquiry into the origin of the "bordereau," but to confine himself to showing that Dreyfus had not written it. But these efforts were vain. At the first hearing, when the word "pièce unique" was mentioned, the "huis clos," or secret trial, was immediately ordered. The discussion then began, and M. Demange says he speedily destroyed all the garrison cackle about Dreyfus's thefts of documents, and so dealt with police reports about him that the prosecution abandoned everything except the authorship of the "bordereau," or memorandum. Here we must let M. Demange tell his own story:

> "Every one knows now the famous proof of the handwriting. In the text which, under dictation, Capt. Dreyfus wrote in a hall surrounded with mirrors, he remarked that in one place a word had got out of line, while all the rest, before and after, was written with a regular and firm hand. But —and this is startling—it was not in this momentary irregularity of the writing that M. Paty du Clam saw what he professed to think a sign of trouble, but in the fact that this irregularity was only momentary, and that Dreyfus so soon recovered himself. It was his recovery (*la répossession de soi-même*) which, in the opinion of M. Paty du Clam, determined his conviction! He even added—a strange admission and worthy of remembrance—that had Dreyfus issued victorious from this test, he (Paty du Clam) would have abandoned the accusation."

Then comes something droller still, considering that a man's fortune and liberty were at stake:

> "*This conviction is founded on another* observation still stranger, the *foot proof*. M. Paty du Clam said to the tribunal that emotion, in natures of great self-possession and capable of concealing their feelings, often shows itself by the trembling of the foot when the legs are crossed. When he went to surprise Dreyfus in his bed, he affirmed before the tribunal that he found in the accused this sign of guilt, which, added to the former one (the irregularity in the written line), strengthened his conviction. Before these stupefying revelations we had at once to have consultation with the bar, to see in what way these fantastic means of investigation should be met."

Oddly enough, somewhat similar evidence was accepted in this country in the trial of Gen. Fitz John Porter for failure to support Pope. One witness testified, and the Judge-Advocate also, that Fitz John Porter's looks previous to the battle showed that he was going to commit treason. To such follies can men go when they have a "reason of state" in their heads.

M. Demange's account of another, and very prominent, witness is very entertaining:

> "Col. Henry affirmed with assurance—what he had long known—that 'there was a traitor in the fourth bureau, and that it only remained to discover the thread, and that he had discovered it, owing to indications which he could not specify.' Here everybody present started up in surprise. One of the Judges requested him to be more precise, and tell how these indications reached him. Col. Henry replied, 'that he could not say more, but that he got them from a person of whom he was as sure as he was of himself.' At this moment Dreyfus, who, in the presence of these strange revelations, had shown great excitement, started from his seat, and, addressing the witness, said: 'Who is this person? Let him be brought here. Let us hear him; let us see him.' Nobody will know his name. We are in secret session. Nothing can prevent his coming.' To these pressing entreaties, in which we joined, the officer continued his resistance, and at last, turning to Dreyfus, pronounced, theatrically, these words: 'Monsieur, I am an officer; a soldier's cap should ignore what he has in his head.'"

M. Demange then goes on to tell that while in the provinces, in the spring of 1896, he fell in with an old legal friend who told him that he had been dining some time after the trial with one of the officers who sat in the court-martial, and asked him how it was that such a man as M. Demange, who had been present at the trial, still believed in Dreyfus's innocence. "Because," said the officer, "naïvement," "M. Demange has not seen what we have seen," and then told of the "pièce secrète" shown to the court after the trial was over. The astonished lawyer then said to the officer: "Never tell this to any one else, for if Dreyfus has committed *lèse-patrie*, you have committed *lèse-justice*." M. Demange adds that some one said to Mathieu Dreyfus in his office: "Doubtless your brother is innocent, but your duty is to sacrifice him to the honor of France."

We are afraid false notions of the "honor of France" and of "the honor of the army" are at the bottom of the whole of this wretched business. The popular excitement in defence of the ruin of a soldier by a secret trial, on evidence not submitted to him and which would startle Betsy Prig, is one of the most painful features of the case, and says little for the progress of moral ideas in democracies. It reminds us, too, a little, of the rascalities of which some men among us are ready to be guilty for "America."

THE TRANSVAAL SITUATION.

The question at issue between President Krüger, now beginning his fourth Presidential term, and Chief-Justice Kotze is of the utmost political importance, and likely to affect most seriously the immediate future of the Tansvaal Republic. Briefly stated, the struggle is to determine whether the High Court of Justice shall be, like our own Supreme Court, independent of the Legislature or subservient to it, whether it shall have the right to test the validity of a law by reference to the written Constitution of the state, or whether it shall be forced to recognize in the Volksraad a legislative authority overriding that of the Grondwet itself. As matters now stand, the President has summarily dismissed the Chief Justice and appointed a creature of his own to the highest judicial office in the republic, on the understanding that the enactments of the Volksraad—practically, that is, of the President himself—shall *ipso facto* be the law of the land.

Americans do not need to be told what utter legal and constitutional chaos would result in their own land from a similar suppression of the powers of the Supreme Court. The confusion is worse confounded in the Transvaal, where a small and ignorant minority, holding all the legislative offices, are bitterly hostile to the majority, who,

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though they own half the land and pay nineteen-twentieths of the taxes, are yet without any real share in the government of the country. Chief-Justice Kotze has been the one safeguard of the rights and property of the Outlanders against the oppressive legislation of the Boer oligarchy. During the twenty years he has sat on the bench in South Africa, he has won for himself a reputation not so greatly inferior to that of John Marshall in America or of Lord Mansfield in England. He has vigorously claimed for the judiciary its rightful place in the government, as the living voice of the Constitution and the sole judge of what is and what is not the fundamental law of the state. His dismissal has roused the gravest apprehensions among the Outlanders. Their fortunes, holdings, occupations, are now absolutely at the mercy of the majority in the Volksraad. For twenty years they have enjoyed taxation without representation. Now they are to taste taxation without justice.

The question whether the Grondwet of 1858 embodies a rigid or flexible constitution has always been a disputed point among lawyers even in Pretoria and Johannesburg. President Krüger's action has, at any rate, settled that. The Grondwet is now declared to be so much waste paper, and its provisions alterable by the Volksraad without reference to the people. As is natural with a document drawn up by pastoral stock-farmers with little legal knowledge or experience in government, it is a crude, cumbersome, and often obscure instrument. Among its 250 articles no mention is made of any scheme of amendment. Its general spirit, and the fact that it was enacted by a Volksraad specially elected *ad hoc*, incline one to believe that its framers intended it as the fundamental law of the republic, alterable only by the specific vote of the whole people. Parts of it have always been so regarded. Other clauses, again, have been virtually nullified by act of Volksraad without protest from the judiciary. Such has been the fate of the provision that three months should be allowed the people for the purpose of expressing their opinion of any proposed law. In general one may say that by the prevailing Roman-Dutch law of obsolescence by contrary practice, the Grondwet has come to be regarded as a flexible and not a rigid constitution. The judiciary has adopted the fatal policy of compromising instead of following the example of the United States Supreme Court. In cases where the transgression of the Constitution has seemed slight and unimportant, no resistance has been offered to the Volksraad; but in other and more vital cases the High Court has reserved to itself the right of declaring an act unconstitutional and therefore void.

Obviously such a haphazard system could not continue for ever. The time was bound to come when the Volksraad and the judiciary would be brought into serious conflict. Chief-Justice Kotze foresaw the inevitable result of the gradual encroachments of the Legislature, and tried—quite ineffectually—to rouse the Boers to the danger of neglecting to guard their Constitution. The collision came at the end of 1896, when the Chief Justice declared the alien immigration act and the press act unconstitutional—both violently oppressive measures, and therefore dear to the President's heart. The Volksraad, at the bidding of Mr. Krüger, who was himself spurred on by the governing Hollander clique, at once passed resolutions requiring the judges to pledge their recognition of the acts of the Legislature as the supreme law. This the Chief Justice refused to do. The crisis was deferred for a time by the compromise of March, 1897. By this compact the High Court agreed not to question the laws and resolutions of the Volksraad, provided that, "as soon as possible," the Grondwet should be established upon a higher basis than any ordinary enactment, and the court be made entirely independent. The court observed its part of the agreement faithfully enough, and gave the Volksraad a free hand through the whole of the last year; but Mr. Krüger, whose finer qualities are often marred by the low cunning of a farmer who has been mixing too much with lawyers, has not proved equally true to his word. He signalized his reëlection to the Presidency last month by abruptly dismissing the Chief Justice. The chances, therefore, of the Grondwet being reaffirmed or strengthened or even respected, are singularly remote. The Chief Justice has not taken his dismissal lying down. He has adjourned the High Court *sine die*, and denied with much vigor the right of the President to turn him out. But Mr. Krüger has the love of his people as well as their ignorance to back him—not to mention the war-chest—and it is fairly safe to assume that he has accomplished his object and made the Transvaal judiciary dependent on and subject to the Volksraad.

The directness of this blow at the Outlanders cannot fail to embitter the relations between Great Britain and the Transvaal. President Krüger has learned something since Dr. Jameson's criminal blunder. He realizes the folly of attempting to play off Germany against England, and he is probably too astute not to know—certainly too astute not to conceal his knowledge—that though the word suzerainty was omitted from the convention of 1884, the *thing* suzerainty was contained in it clearly enough. It is only in the direction of internal reform that this cool and wary old Boer refuses to move. Many of the demands of the Outlanders must be judged by an impartial observer to be unequivocally just; yet not one of them, except the demand for the use of English in some of the elementary schools, has been granted. The dynamite monopoly still continues to oppress the mining industries without benefiting the republic. The railroad tariffs still remain unreduced, in spite of the emphatic recommendations of the industrial committee appointed by the Volksraad. The unwarrantable restrictions on the franchise are still in force. Government is still in the hands of a corrupt and incompetent minority, who tax and harass the wealth-producing and business portion of the residents to their heart's content. A prudent statesman would not add to this list of anomalies, least of all by such a blazing irregularity as the open prostitution of justice. It may easily be found within the next few months that President Krüger has for once been betrayed by his self-confidence into dangerously overreaching himself.

LARROUMET'S RACINE.

PARIS, February 10, 1898.

One of the best writers of the day, M. Gustave Larroumet, has undertaken to write a book on Racine in Hachette's series, "The Great French Writers," a publication which is very successful, and deservedly so. Some of the volumes are excellent, others are indifferent, if not bad; but, on the whole, the series is of great interest. It seems audacious to undertake a new life of Racine and a new analysis of his work, but our *fin-de-siècle* critic does not see things as the critic of 1830 did before him. Criticism, like history, takes a new color in every new generation. M. Larroumet represents eminently the modern criticism, which may be called analytic criticism, inspired by the method inaugurated by Taine. It is a sort of dissection of the subject. The work of an author is considered as the outward expression of his inner life; and biography becomes an essential part of the critical work. Racine may be said to have, more than many others, profoundly felt the influence of his education, his own passions, his friendships, his private and social life. The sentiments which he expressed were in a great measure the sentiments which he experienced.

He was born at La Ferté-Milon, a small town of Isle de France in the Valois, on December 22, 1639. He was the first son of Jean Racine, collector of the salt-tax, and of Jeanne Sconin. The office held by his father conferred on him a sort of nobility. The family had had arms for two generations, and, curiously enough, there was a swan in these arms (the harmonious poet was often compared to Virgil, the "Swan of Mantua"). There was also a rat in them, but the poet had the rat struck off when he had them registered in 1697; he kept only the swan, though the two beasts together made a kind of rebus—*Rat-cygne* (Racine). He became an orphan at the age of four, with a young sister. He was brought up in his grandparents' house, where his grandmother, Marie des Moulins, proved a second mother to him. In 1649 she became a widow and retired to Port Royal des Champs, and the young Racine was sent to school at Beau-

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vais. There he remained four years. In 1655 he was called to Port Royal, and admitted among the pupils of the Fathers, in the school founded by Saint-Cyran. There were never more than fifty pupils in it. This education had an extraordinary influence on Racine. The methods of instruction were admirable: each professor had a very small number of pupils; the children were conducted by persuasion and gentle means—no harsh discipline, no brutality; the professors took care to use the best writers of antiquity, Greek and Latin—they had no second-hand books; they read with their pupils in the original text. They taught the doctrine of Jansenism—the impossibility for man to arrive at moral perfection by his own merits, the necessity of the divine grace, the easy triumph of passion over man if passion is not arrested by the help of God.

The tender and delicate nature of Racine, his pliable intelligence, were admirably adapted for such discipline. He became imbued with the Old and New Testament, with Greece and her famous authors. We still possess his copy of the Bible, covered with notes. I was so fortunate as to find his Æschylus, with his name in it and a few notes. Many of his favorite books are found in some famous libraries—not the books, of course, which he had at school, but those which he used as a man, which he always had very well bound. They are all the great classics of antiquity, Greek and Latin. The tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides took such possession of him at school that he spent days learning them by heart in the woods round Port Royal. He found accidentally the Greek novel of 'Theagenes and Chariclea.' He was reading it when one of the fathers, Claude Lancelot, took the book away from him and threw it in the fire. Racine procured for himself another copy, which had the same fate; he learned the book by heart in a third copy, which he brought to Lancelot, saying to him, "You can burn this one as well as the others."

The first verses which Racine wrote were in Latin, an ode "Ad Christum," which has been preserved. This was followed by several French odes on the "Promenade de Port Royal des Champs," easy, fluent, inspired by the scenery of the valley, which the Fathers of Port Royal themselves called the Desert, and which in the language of the time was thought "savage," while to our eyes, accustomed to the horrors of high mountains, it seems merely agreeable. By a strange contrast (but all fine characters have contrasts) the tender Racine had an ironical tendency in his nature. His early letters show well this singular mixture. He does not remain completely under the severe influences of Port Royal. After three years, he leaves the school in October, 1658, at the age of nineteen. He takes his year in philosophy at the Collège d'Harcourt.

In Paris Racine made many friends, some of whom were in the theatrical world. He knew La Fontaine, some comedians of the Theatre of the Marais and of the Hôtel de Bourgogne. He promised some actresses to give them parts in the plays he was beginning to write. His friends of Port Royal were afraid, and wrote to him letter after letter, or, rather, as he said, excommunication after excommunication. The young poet printed in 1660 an ode on the marriage of Louis XIV. with Maria Theresa, with the title, "The Nymph of the Seine." It was a commonplace production, but Colbert sent him a present of a hundred louis, and soon afterwards put him on the pension list for six hundred livres, in his quality of man of letters. His uncle, Vicar-General of Uzès, tried to make him take orders at that time, and Racine had to pay a visit to Uzès. He arrived there at the end of 1661, and was lodged in a tower which formed a pavilion in the episcopal palace, and which may still be seen. Racine found himself there in exile; he compared himself to Ovid among the barbarians. He corresponded with his friends in Paris, sometimes in prose, sometimes in verse. He waits in vain for the ecclesiastical call; he studies theology in vain. His mind is in Paris, in the northern part of France; he does not like the south, its climate, its inhabitants. At last he loses patience, and returns to Paris in July, 1662.

He had given up the idea of being a priest, but, thanks to the efforts of his uncle, he obtained a benefice, the priory of Sainte-Madeleine de l'Épinay, in the diocese of Angers. The young prior had some lawsuits with his rivals, a circumstance to which we owe the amusing comedy "Les Plaideurs," the only comedy which he ever wrote, and which is still sometimes played. Besides this priory, Racine obtained two others, Saint-Jacques de la Ferté and Saint Nicolas de Choisel. We still find him in possession of these priories in 1673, when he was in the midst of his theatrical career.

The death of Racine's grandmother broke the last tie with Port Royal, and he gave himself now completely to the theatrical world. He made the acquaintance of Molière, who gave him, it is said, the subject of his first tragedy, the "Thébaïde," which was represented on the 20th of June, 1664. His aunt, Sister Agnes, made a futile appeal to him: "I write to you in the bitterness of my heart. . . . I have learned that you associate more than ever with people whose name is abominable to those who have any piety," etc. Nicole wrote to a friend, speaking of Racine: "A novel-writer and a theatrical poet is a public poisoner, not of bodies, but of souls." Racine wrote in answer a letter which he did not sign, and which was an attack on the solitaries of Port Royal, "a masterpiece," says M. Larroumet, "of spite and wit." This quarrel with Port Royal lasted ten years. Racine said later to the Abbé Tallemant: "Sir, it is the most shameful part of my life, and I would give all my blood to efface it." In reality, the rupture was only apparent; we find the spirit of Port Royal in all the work of Racine. Boileau became very intimate with Racine; they met regularly, with La Fontaine, Chapelle, Furetière, some gentlemen of the court and officers, sometimes in their own houses, sometimes at the cabaret, the "Mouton Blanc," the "Pomme de Pin," the "Croix de Lorraine."

"Alexandre le Grand" was Racine's second tragedy. It was first recited at the Hôtel de Nevers, before a fine assembly—La Rouchefoucauld, Pomponne, Madame de la Fayette, Madame de Sévigné and her daughter. The first representation (December 4, 1665) took place before Monsieur, brother of the King, and his wife, Henrietta of England, the great Condé, and his son the Duke d'Enghien, the Princess Palatine, Anne de Gonzague. The success was great, but the audience was divided; the generation of the Fronde was faithful to Corneille, the new generation adopted Racine. Racine was twenty-five years old when "Alexandre" was played. His noble face is well known as engraved by Edelinck. He gave a part in his play to Mlle. du Parc, who was admired by Molière and the old Corneille, and he felt a violent passion for her. He wrote for her the part of *Andromaque*. He dedicated this admirable tragedy, his first masterpiece, to Henrietta of England. Curiously enough, "Andromaque" had not as much success as "Alexandre," though it is infinitely superior. Racine's triumphant career, however, begins with "Andromaque." He next produced "Britannicus," "Bérénice," in which Champmeslé, the best actress of the day, played the principal part. The great Condé admired the tragedy of "Bérénice" so much that he applied to the piece two verses which are found in it:

"Depuis trois ans entiers chaque jour je la vois,
Et crois toujours la voir pour la première fois."

Racine wrote for Champmeslé the tragedy of "Phèdre," in which she could develop her fine qualities; Champmeslé is forgotten, but "Phèdre" is immortal. "Mithridate," "Bajazet," "Iphigénie" complete the cycle which precedes the religious tragedies of Racine—"Esther" and "Athalie." "Phèdre" was the crown of the first cycle, and there was a long interruption between "Phèdre" and the religious dramas.

Racine had always remained secretly attached to Port Royal; he had been for a time intoxicated by theatrical success, by the world's applause; but in the preface to "Phèdre" he speaks already of "reconciling tragedy with a number of people celebrated for their piety and their doctrine, who have condemned it lately." Racine made his peace with Nicole, with Arnauld; he resolved to abandon the theatrical career, and he married (in 1677) an orphan, Catherine de Romanet, who belonged to a very honorable family. The great Condé signed his contract. Racine led from this time a quiet, domestic life. He was induced, as is well known, to write again, only at the request of Madame de Maintenon, for the demoiselles de St. Cyr. He had been appointed historiographer to the King, and accompanied him at the siege of Namur. He had seven children by his marriage, two sons and five daughters, and practised all the virtues of a good father. Four of his daughters entered convents; only one was married. One of the boys entered diplomacy and died young. Louis Racine became a poet—that is to say, he wrote a poem with the title "La Religion."

I can only, in ending, recommend Larroumet's work; it is full of matter and in every respect interesting.

THE ARTS AT MYCENÆ.

ROME, January, 1898.

The technical indications in a former article, on the remains of Mycenæ, look to conclusions which have a very great importance in relation to the discoveries connected with the name and researches of Schliemann, and which, unless they can be controverted, dissipate definitely the hypothesis of the high antiquity of either the tombs in which the treasures now at Athens were found, or the palace at Tiryns. If it be true that no knowledge of the art of stone-cutting, properly speaking, was possessed by the people who restored the façade of the great tomb at Mycenæ and built the second tomb, known as that of Mme. Schliemann, besides adding

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to the Lion gate the relief of the lions—which conclusions are to me indisputably shown by the technical evidence—it follows that wherever we find stone-cutting, *i. e.*, *with chisels*, we are in the presence of work posterior to that which is recognized by the greatest authorities as of the seventh, or at furthest the eighth, century B. C., at which former date the stone-saw and most probably the tube-drill were, *according to tradition*, introduced; a date which strengthens the opinion of those authorities as to the epoch of the relief of the Lion gate.

To resume, for convenience of comparison, the facts which are, I believe, indisputable: The work done with "the stone-hammer and plumb-line" of Hesiod, which comprises all the earliest style of the remains at Mycenæ, and was done by splitting, hammering, and trituration, is earlier than the seventh or eighth century, by an indeterminable period. The stone-saw and stone-drill appear at that epoch and any chisel-work is later; and from all the researches I have been able to make, there is in the Hellenic world no proper stone-cutting, *i. e.*, chisel-work, earlier than the sixth or at furthest the seventh century. I believe the former to be the limit, with possible exception of work in the soft volcanic stone, of which in the Italian sphere all the earliest cut-stone work consists, as this material can easily be worked with the bronze tools which have come down to us from ancient times. I assert that no hard stone, such as the limestones usually employed in Greek building, can be indicated as in use earlier than the sixth century, and I accept the opinion of the authorities which put the date of the Lion relief at the earliest in the eighth century.

Now, in the constructions which environ the tomb that once contained the Mycenæan treasure at present in the museum at Athens, there are stones coming from various stages of the decay of Mycenæ, both of the earliest epoch and of the two later, showing the use of the tube-drill and the chisel respectively. This alone indicates that the tomb and surrounding structure are later than the sixth century. But there is still stronger evidence of this comparative modernity in the treasure itself. In the *Ephemeris* of 1894 (part 3) there is an article on this subject by Mr. Nicolaides, which shows in its illustrations a fragment of a silver vessel (part of the treasure) with a besieged city—a portion of the walls with their defenders and archers and slingers fighting outside the defences. This Mr. Nicolaides maintains to be a representation of the siege of Troy, and, as the most celebrated siege of antiquity, it may be assumed to be so. But what, in any case, is decisive of the epoch in which it was made, an absolute proof that it is subsequent to that siege, is the fact that the walls of the city there represented are in regular, parallel courses and rusticated, which features cannot be found in any Hellenic walls earlier than the sixth century (or, as I believe, the fifth). The position of the relief in the tomb precludes the idea of its being of accidental and later inclusion, and the inevitable inference is that the tomb is that of a sepulture later than the sixth century B. C.

This conclusion would in fact alone account for the curious and otherwise inexplicable mélange of objects of various epochs and evidently of different stages of art. It is that at which I had arrived from the first examination of the tomb and its contents; and the condition of the interred bodies at the moment of discovery made it inconceivable that a date corresponding with Schliemann's theory should be assignable to it. The form of the grave, so entirely different from everything known elsewhere of the interments in Hellenic usage of any epoch, made this problem an insoluble one from the beginning, and so it still remains, on any other hypothesis than that it was ethnologically and chronologically an intrusion into the Hellenic locality. The probability of its being a *reinterment* has been admitted by some of the most strenuous advocates of its assignment to an extreme antiquity, and is an hypothesis indispensable for the explanation of the manner of inhumation, the secrecy of it, and the circular and Stonehenge-like monument which crowned it. The discovery by Tsountas of the great virgin beehive tomb near Sparta, with objects belonging to the earlier period of those found at Mycenæ, gave an intelligible clue to the mystery; and that of the immense collection of tombs, many rifled in ancient times, in the immediate vicinity of Mycenæ adds to the evidence in favor of my original hypothesis, viz., that the Schliemann tomb was a late interment, in which the treasures of a chief of a band of temple or tomb-robbers had been deposited with the bodies of the family of which he was the head.

As the researches of Tsountas proved, among other things, that the city had been reoccupied after the period of its supposed destruction and abandonment by the Argives, and had been inhabited down into the Roman conquest, the possibility of such an occupation as would permit the reinterment is, I suppose, undeniable, and the hypothesis solves every problem connected with the treasure. Have we any indications of such a state of affairs as would render this hypothesis, *a priori*, probable? This I propose to show to be the case. Among the fragments of Diodorus Siculus ("The Virtues and the Vices," ed. A. F. Miot, Diodore di Sicile, vol. vi., p. 490) is this:

"Pyrrhus, after having given up to pillage the city of Aegæ, residence of the kings of Macedonia, left in it a Gaulish garrison. The men who composed it, having learned that formerly there was, according to ancient usage, the custom of burying in the royal tombs large sums of money [treasure?] with the dead buried there, violated these tombs, divided the treasure which they found there, and scattered the bones. This violation of sepulture drew down the public malediction on Pyrrhus, who did not, nevertheless, dare to punish the Gauls, necessary to him in his warfare."

That is to say, until the entry of the Gauls in Greek territories, the tombs had been preserved from pillage by the religious scruples of the inhabitants, which is, *au reste*, in accordance with all that we know of the period and people; and the Gauls, having no reverence for the religious prejudices of the Greeks, pillaged the graves of their kings as well as their temples. The plunder of the royal tombs in those parts of Greece to which they had access is the natural consequence.

The solution of a barbaric inhumation was proposed by the great Russian archæologist, Stephani, at the time of the discovery, but his attribution to a period subsequent to the beginning of the Christian era was easily shown by Prof. Gardner to be untenable, and his hypothesis has, consequently, been left out of account. The Russian was, however, I believe, right in the general conclusion, and only misled by the analogies between certain finds in Russia of a later date which bore a very perceptible relation to those of Mycenæ. The evidence brought forward by Mr. Nicolaides is so precise in its bearing on the date of the workmanship of the vase in question that it seems to me to dispose definitively of any archaic attribution to the inhumation of Mycenæ.

The technical evidence given by the remains on the palace site of Tiryns bears directly on the solution of that problem, and in as decisive a manner as that on the tomb. The slabs of limestone found in the ruins of the palace are worked with the stone-saw and the tube-drill; nothing appears of the earlier manner of working, the conglomerate finished by trituration—all that is *in situ* is of the stone-saw period, and, consequently, must be brought down into the early period of Hellenic work proper. Its attribution to the pre-Homeric period is, therefore, incorrect. During the discussion of this question at a meeting of the Hellenic Society of London, called *ad hoc*, which my engagements did not permit me to attend, this point was not brought out, and Dr. Middleton, who was there the most authoritative supporter of the view of Drs. Schliemann and Dörpfeld, based his opinion on the presence in the ruins of stones worked by the stone-saw and tube-drill. But in subsequent conversation with me on the subject, he admitted to me that he was not aware of the technical distinction between the archaic and the seventh-century methods, and had attributed both kinds to the former period. As his opinion was the most decisive adduced at the meeting, it carried with it the great weight which his almost unequalled knowledge of antique processes gave, and was considered by many of those present conclusive. It had, however, as I have shown in my former letter, ignored the most important distinction due to the subject. The other problem, *i. e.*, whether the limestone slabs found at Tiryns bearing the evidences of the use of the stone-saw and tube-drill formed part, in the situation in which they were found, of a palace of their epoch, or, as I believe, had been re-employed in a palace of the Byzantine times, the ruins of which covered the Acropolis of Tiryns, remains unaffected by this evidence, while the contention of Dr. Jebb, Mr. Penrose, and myself, that the ruins are not those of a pre-Homeric edifice, agrees with the conclusion based on all the technical evidence here adduced. W. J. STILLMAN.

Correspondence.

WHAT JEFFERSON AND MADISON WOULD HAVE SAID.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "X" in the *Nation* for February 17 suggests the dignified and genial attitude which Washington and Lincoln would have taken on such an incident as the De Lome letter. Without laying too much stress on an affair now happily past and unhappily overshadowed by more gloomy events, it may be worth while to point out that two difficulties arose, nearly a century ago, which, taken together, are almost a parallel to the De Lome affair. In 1804, the Marquis of Casa Yrujo tried to incite a newspaper editor to attack the Ad-

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ministration, for which, with other reasons, his recall was soon after demanded. He refused to leave the country, and in 1806 published in the newspapers some of his own violent letters to the Secretary of State.

In 1808, after the French subversion of Spain, De Onis was sent over by the Bourbon Government. The United States declined to receive him as a Minister, but he remained as an unaccredited agent, enjoying the hospitality of the country. A semi-official letter to the Captain-General of Caracas fell, in 1810, into the hands of the American authorities, and President Madison sent it to Congress. The message and the letter are so characteristic that it seems worth while to transcribe them. They may be found in American State Papers, Foreign Affairs, iii., 404. In 1815 De Onis was recognized as Spanish Minister, and negotiated the Florida cession of 1819.—Very truly yours,

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

CAMBRIDGE, February 28, 1898.

January 10, 1811.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States:

I communicate to Congress, in confidence, the translation of a letter from Luis de Onis to the Captain-General of the Province of Caraccas.

The tendency of misrepresentations and suggestions, which, it may be inferred from this specimen, enter into more important correspondences of the writer, to promote in foreign councils, at a critical period, views adverse to the peace and to the best interests of our country, renders the contents of the letter of sufficient moment to be made known to the Legislature. JAMES MADISON.

PHILADELPHIA, February 2, 1810.

The administration of this Government, having put the stamp upon the servile meanness and adulation in which they stand in relation to their oracle, Bonaparte, the day before yesterday, by their direction, Mr. Eppes, the son-in-law of the former President, Jefferson, made a proposition that a Minister should be immediately sent to Joseph Bonaparte, at Madrid. This was supported, in the committee in which the House then was, by Mr. Cutts, who is the brother-in-law of President Madison. There were various debates, there were howlings in the tribunals, there were sarcasms against the Supreme Central Junta, and many trifling observations from one party and the other, among which mention was made of the arrival of a minister from the Supreme Junta, and of this Government's having wisely refused to receive him; and, at length, a vote was taken, from which it resulted that, for the present, no minister was to be sent to Joseph.

In the annexed paper you will see all the debates, which, for want of time, I have not been able to have translated. If your excellency should not be informed, by my former despatches, of the mode of thinking of the present administration, this alone will show the little hope there is of obtaining any thing favorable from it, *but by energy, by force, and by chastisement.*

The facility—I again repeat it, and I will repeat it a thousand times—with which American vessels are admitted into our colonies, preferring them to our own, makes these people believe that our weakness does not permit us even to talk to them on equal terms, much less to take measures which may injure them. From hence springs the great opinion (*la grande opinion*) they have, that the intruder, Joseph, will rule in Spain and her colonies; and hence the incitement to their scandalous conduct in promoting, by every means in their power, the machinations of Joseph to make himself master of our colonies, as if upon that depended their happiness.

The determination of making war on England, and of treating Spain with contempt, supposing that her nullity did not entitle her to any thing else, was taken by the present administration some time since, though it was not in them the determination of reason. To accomplish it, they thought of forming an alliance, offensive and defensive, between France, Russia, Denmark, Sweden, and the United States; and some even suppose that it is formed. With this object they have sent Mr. Adams to the court of St. Petersburg, in quality of minister plenipotentiary, directing him to examine on his way (*haciéndole recorrer al paso*) the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen; but, notwithstanding this, if England should display her energy, in however small a degree, and if, on our part, some vessels should be sent to their coasts, and some troops should draw near to Louisiana, there is reason to believe that we should see these provinces separated and divided into two or three republics, and, consequently, they would remain in a state of perfect nullity. We should soon have from the republic of the north, which would be our friend, all the supplies which are now drawn from the others, who would perish from poverty and quarrels among themselves.

This country is now without a cent, with a deficit of four millions of dollars in her revenue, with not more of an effective army than six thousand despicable men, of whom two thousand five hundred, that they had at New Orleans, are reduced by death to six hundred; and although they have passed a law for one hundred thousand, much time and money will be necessary to organize them. Its navy is for the most part disarmed, although they propose to arm it, and the whole of it is reduced to eight or nine frigates. The blindness of these people is such, that the Secretary of the Treasury (Gallatin), speaking with Colonel Joseph de Gonzales, late Governor of Puno, who, from his having come from the Havana, Mexico, and other provinces, he believed (not knowing his integrity) to be one of the many emissaries of Napoleon, the *caste* which abounds most here, offered to him the constitution of Paine, and other papers relative to the liberty which here they dispute about, persuading him to send them to Mexico and our other colonies, and that he should endeavor to induce them to unite themselves to this republic; that here they were ready, if this succeeded, to move near to them, or even to place in their country, the seat of Government. These, sir, are the ideas with which this administration is animated. Notwithstanding, at the time they observed this conduct, they sent General Sumpter in the character of minister plenipotentiary to Rio Janeiro.

God preserve you many years.

LUIS DE ONIS.

To the CAPTAIN-GENERAL of the Province of Caraccas.

A NEGLECTED SCIENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Surely, singing may claim the title of a divine art, and no less should the training of the vocal instrument be considered a science requiring as thorough knowledge of the anatomy, physiology, and hygiene of the parts involved as is required for the whole system in the case of the physician. From the days of the Greeks to the present time, there has been a lamentation over the asserted decadence of the singer's art continuous with the evolution of the song-form in its various phases, and the changing of standards of what shall in each epoch be held artistic singing. Most of those who have studied the question most carefully will probably feel that on the whole the art of song interpretation has kept fair pace with the higher ideals of the present day. Be this as it may, when the vast army of vocal pupils is considered, the number of truly great artists is appallingly small, and even the number of singers who use their voices so as to insure long life to their instruments, and a tone which appeals alike to the heart and ear of the audience, is out of all proportion to the number of teachers and scholars.

Unfortunately, the profession of voice-training is still at the mercy of the almighty-dollar grabber. Any individual is free to herald himself as a Vocal Instructor, whether or no he has had proper preparation either in the knowledge of the vocal instrument or in the science of imparting knowledge. Strange to say, not one teacher in a hundred knows that any literature of the subject exists outside of a few volumes of solfeggio and other exercises; much less do they have any idea that there is any use in trying to learn anything from books—a statement which will be received almost with incredulity by educated people.

Since incompetent teaching and crass ignorance of the voice as an instrument, not of wood and metal, but of living tissue, are undoubtedly to blame for the yearly ruin of many thousands of beautiful American voices, it would seem as though some action might properly be taken to restrict the practice of voice-training by law to those who had thoroughly prepared themselves according to a truly educational standard, such as is now requisite to practise as a physician, lawyer, apothecary, or even plumber, because ignorance which may harm the pupil *client is*, or should be, considered criminal. How this can best be brought about is an open question, requiring no less immediate action because of the difficulties involved. It certainly should be included in the educational problems of the day; and when we take into account the close relation of proper voice use to the individual, in the sense both of a delightful accomplishment and of an active factor for augmented health through deep breathing (a cure for a large portion of the nervous troubles of which we hear constant complaint), the question becomes one of unusual interest.

For the benefit of those interested should be noted the publication begun in the February number (1898) of the *Musician* (Hatch Music Co., Philadelphia) of what is said to be the first bibliographical list of works on "Voice-Production and the Art of Singing" ever published in any language. It will include about six hundred titles, and all readers are requested to show their interest by coöperating to make the list accurate and complete.

Now that our leading colleges (Columbia, Yale, and Harvard) have recognized the value of music as a useful factor in a college curriculum, it would seem as though we might look to them for assistance in driving the charlatan and the quack from the vocal profession. J. STANFORD BROWN.

No. 1 BROADWAY, NEW YORK, March 3, 1898.

THE RETALIATION OF FINAL G.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In commenting on the suppression of *g* in the ending *-ing*, so widely prevalent, as shown by a correspondent's surprising array of examples in the *Nation* of February 17, you say:

"The suppressed *g* partly avenges itself in this country by attaching itself in speech to final syllables in *n*, as 'certing,' 'certingly,' for certain, certainly."

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This peculiarity of speech, frequently heard in this country, seems to have been a characteristic of the northern English dialect, as the following examples from literature, ready at hand, would indicate:

"And enterit in a lusty gairding (garden) gent."—Wm. Dunbar: *The Thrissil and the Rois* (1503).
"This gud knycht said: deyr Cusyng (cousin) pray I the."—Henry the Minstrel; *Wallace* (1461).
"And sum were eke that fallyng (fallen) had so sore."—James I. (of Scotland): *The Kingis Quhair* (1423).
"All those quhilk funding (funden) bene on lyve" (all those which be found alive).—Sir David Lyndesay: *The Monarche* (1552).

It made its way into standard English in the expression, *much beholding* (beholden), frequently met with in Shakspere and in general literature:

"A justice of peace sometimes may be beholding (beholden) to his friend."—*Merry Wives.*

With this may be compared *unknowing* for *unknown* in *Roister Doister:*

"Neque lux, neque crux, neque mourners, neque clinke;
He will steal to heaven, *unknowing* to God, I thinke."

E. A. A.

University of Missouri, March 5, 1898.

FOREIGN EXPRESSAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An American residing in Munich, Bavaria, received recently from New York a package containing ten copies of a book sent through Pitt & Scott's Foreign Express Agency. The prepayment of the package by the sender cost $1.50. After the lapse of nearly a month the package reached its destination via Antwerp and Frankfort, with additional charges of two marks (fifty cents) for "boundary expenses," "custom-house," etc. There are no such expenses levied by the German Government, and all books are imported free of duty. If the ten books had been sent by mail in three or four small packages, the whole cost would have been ninety cents, and they would have reached their destination in two weeks. Comment is unnecessary. P.

PROF. STOWE AND CASAUBON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is certainly to be regretted that the generally excellent review of the 'Life of Harriet Beecher Stowe' appearing in your last issue (February 24) should contain a characterization of Dr. Stowe which all who knew him must immediately recognize as markedly inadequate and misleading. To some it may appear even unjust and unkind—though doubtless the reviewer meant to be perfectly fair, and was only unfortunate in the sources from which he was compelled to draw his information. Yet it would seem that, had it been a fact, as he asserts it was, that Dr. Stowe labored under a certain constitutional inability to distinguish between "things real and visionary," it was an infirmity that should have endeared him to one who can allude to Mr. Casaubon's family as "augmenting itself annually," when, as a matter of fact, Mr. Casaubon unfortunately had no family.

Such misquotation of a well-known author would lead us to surmise that Dr. Stowe and Mr. Casaubon are not the only "futile" scholars whom our century has produced.

Charles Edward Stowe.

Simsbury, Conn., March 1, 1898.

[It was of "the real Casaubon" that we wrote that his family augmented itself annually ("s'augmente annuellement," in the words of the Town Council of Geneva). Mr. Stowe, by consulting Mark Pattison's 'Life of Isaac Casaubon,' p. 485, will find that he had by his second wife "seventeen children and no more" from 1588 to 1612.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish 'French Essayists and Romancers,' by Mlle. Blaze de Bury; 'The First Republic in America,' by Alexander Brown; 'Washington versus Jefferson,' by Moses M. Granger; Poems by Mrs. Florence Earle Coates; the second and concluding volume of Hannis Taylor's 'Origin and Growth of the English Constitution'; 'Unforeseen Tendencies in Democracy,' by Edwin L. Godkin; and 'Tales of the Home Folks in Peace and War,' by Joel Chandler Harris.

M. F. Mansfield will publish directly 'The Picturesque Thames, from London to Oxford,' by John Leyland, with 300 full-page illustrations.

A new story, by Albion W. Tourgee, 'The Man who Outlived Himself,' is to be issued by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co. publish immediately 'Marching with Gomez,' by Grover Flint.

An authorized translation of Brunetière's 'Manual of the History of French Literature' is in preparation by T. Y. Crowell & Co., who announce also 'The Poems of Shakspere,' edited by George Wyndham.

Brentano's have nearly ready a translation of Stendahl's 'Le Rouge et le Noir.'

W. H. Mallock's new book, 'Aristocracy and Evolution,' will bear the imprint of Macmillan Co.

March announcements of D. Appleton & Co. embrace 'Studies of Good and Evil,' by Prof. Josiah Royce; 'Psychologic Foundations of Education,' by Dr. W. T. Harris; 'A History of Italian Literature,' by Dr. Richard Garnett; 'A French Volunteer of the War of Independence (The Chevalier de Pontgibaud),' translated and edited by Robert B. Douglas; 'The Animal World,' by Frank Vincent; 'The Story of Animal Life in the Sea,' by Sydney J. Hickson; and 'The Disaster,' a story of the Franco-Prussian war, by Paul and Victor Margueritte.

'The Year's Art' (London: Virtue; New York: Brentano's) is rapidly approaching its majority. The volume for 1898 is the nineteenth annual issue, and is marked by all the good features acquired in this period. The Artist's Calendar has been grafted on to an Artist's Diary. The "Notes on Architecture" for the past year are continued. Among the twenty-seven artist portraits we observe Mr. Joseph Pennell's. There are the usual memoranda of select pictures from the provincial exhibitions; the list of engravings published in 1897; the invaluable Directory of Artists, and the Arts and Crafts membership appendix. The editor, Mr. A. C. R. Carter, notes with regret the death of Sir Frank Lockwood, whose legal distinction was not incompatible with cleverness in caricature. In fact, his portrait was published in 'The Year's Art' for 1895 in the series of "Eminent Black-and-White Artists."

'The Story of a Red Deer,' a little book by the Hon. J. W. Fortescue (Macmillan), apparently written for young people, is equally fit for older ones to read, and, indeed, is full of interest for any naturalist or lover of nature. It is the biography of an Exmoor stag from his earliest calfhood to the day when, in the fulness of matured strength and vigor, he plunges over a fall and ends his life after a gallant race before the hounds. He and his mother and kin are friends to all the wild natives of the moor and forest, and they talk together and help each other through the troubles and dangers of an animal existence in a way which Mr. Fortescue so describes as to make it seem perfectly natural and as if it could hardly be otherwise. The friendly teachings of Aunt Yeld, a spinster hind, the talks and warnings of Lord Salmon, and the egotistic optimism of Bunny are all in strict accordance with what one familiar with these creatures would expect them to do and say, and there is nothing in the book untrue to Nature interpreted by one who loves her and has by long intercourse fathomed her secrets.

The 'Tales of the Real Gypsy,' by Paul Kester (Doubleday & McClure Co.), are six in number, and are followed by an appendix. The stories, though rather highly drawn, especially the first one, "A Rommany Guldo," are not devoid of charm for those interested in these fascinating people, but are encumbered with such an amount of untranslated Gypsy words and phrases as to make them in parts unintelligible to the ordinary reader. Mr. Kester's own knowledge of the Gypsy language does not keep him from inaccuracies in the use of it. For instance, chavo is a boy, chavi, a girl, and he makes the Gypsy mother in the first story call her boy by the feminine name. Loose as Gypsies are in the use of their practically unwritten language, they never call a boy a girl. Mr. Kester has also changed the spelling in many instances from such as is generally current—"fedarar" (better) Smart and Crofton spell "ferradair" or "fettadair"; "chel," a fellow, is spelled "chal" by Borrow, Leland, and Crofton. The appendix, especially in its "Traits and Characteristics" and "Facts about the Gypsies," is interesting and instructive.

Why works on economic geology should be weak, and, from a scientific standpoint, inconsequential, may be difficult to explain, but such is the fact, and Prof. A. B. Willmott's 'The Mineral Wealth of Canada' (Toronto: William Briggs) is no exception to the rule. It is a brief general treatise on ores and minerals, their occurrence and uses, with special reference to Canadian localities, so that whatever importance it has is as an economic geology designed for Canadian students. It is a pity that it is not a safer guide, for the present activity in the development of the mineral resources of Canada will assure the book an extensive sale. This means, then, a perpetuation of ideas concerning ore deposits which should have been consigned to the *limbus fatuorum* long ago. To read in these days of great fissures in the earth remaining open at such depths as would be necessary for subsequent filling with ores, is somewhat discouraging in the face of all the evidence to the contrary. The author could hardly have done worse than

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select Louis's classification of ore deposits as a basis for discussion, but faulty interpretation of vein phenomena need not necessarily have followed, even after laying so bad a foundation. The introductory chapter on minerals and rocks is so absurdly insufficient that it might better have been omitted in favor of an index, if space was a consideration. The references to authorities are very good, and constitute one of the few valuable features of the work.

A 'Bibliography of the Metals of the Platinum Group,' by Dr. James Lewis Howe, professor of chemistry at Washington and Lee University, has been published as No. 1084 of the "Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections." The purpose of the work is "to enumerate the articles upon the metals of the platinum group found in scientific literature to the close of the year 1896." The author has not attempted to follow certain divisions of the subject which are outside of the department of chemistry, such as the use of platinum in electrical apparatus, in photography, and in connection with the X-rays. The work is published on the recommendation of the committee of the American Association for the Advancement of Science having charge of indexing chemical literature.

There has hitherto been no convenient guide for English students to the language now generally spoken in Persia, such grammars as those of Forbes and Clarke giving rather the quasi-classical Persian of India. The lack is well supplied by Dr. Fritz Rosen's 'Modern Persian Colloquial Grammar' (London: Luzac & Co.), which contains a short outline of the grammar, with dialogues and specimens of narrative prose. The statement of forms is generally clear and the arrangement is good. Numerous extracts are given from the diaries of the late Shah, Nasir-eddin. His Majesty is supposed to write good Persian, and, by employing the colloquial form, has done much to raise it to the dignity of a literary language. His remarks on European things and persons are simple, often naïve, but always intelligent and kindly.

Volume 7 of the 'Oeuvres Complètes de Christiaan Huygens,' published by the Société Hollandaise des Sciences, is now in the hands of American subscribers. It embraces the correspondence from 1670 to 1675, leaving twenty years of the life and the works proper still to be accounted for. Of the 626 pages of this solid and sumptuous quarto, 64 are occupied with the very admirable indexes. The text is abundantly fortified with figures and facsimile reproductions, and contains among other things a good process reproduction of Edelinck's portrait of Huygens. A slight abatement of interest in astronomical topics is seen, and an increased interest in philosophy and practical life. The English correspondence is particularly important.

The eleventh volume (Second Series) of Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society covers the years 1896-'97 (May to June). It is exceptionally rich in substantial biographical sketches, with portraits, including a belated one of Rufus Choate, a fair-minded performance. Dr. A. P. Peabody, O. W. Holmes, J. R. Lowell, Leverett Salstonstall, and Henry Lillie Pierce are the subjects of others, and the last three names imply that much of our recent political history in the struggle for independent voting and non-partisan appointments to the civil service is touched upon in the respective memoirs. The President, Mr. Charles Francis Adams, in October, 1896, could not resist the occasion of the pending crisis to review the Presidential elections which he remembered, and to place the peril of Bryan's success beside that of McClellan in the election of 1864. His remarks will be found suggestive even by those who question his general position that our affairs would have taken much the course they did had the elections been reversed in every other instance besides these two. The humor of this volume is furnished by an extract from a dispatch of Minister Lowell's, at Madrid, which nurses delightfully a news item about beating the octroi on petroleum at the city gates, by means of women of a naturally deficient contour.

In the third "Quarterly" of the Texas State Historical Association, Miss Brownie Ponton and Mr. Bates H. McFarland aim to establish a new itinerary for Cabeza de Vaca's wanderings across the continent. No larger bibliographic knowledge than may be had from a few English translations (mostly inexpert), scant personal familiarity with the country involved (except a small and least significant portion of it), and almost entire innocence of its ethnography—these are poor equipments for attacking so recondite a theme. Until some one shall have acquired a tithe of his mastery of the documentary "sources," the ethnology and the physical geography whereby conjointly the itinerary of Vaca must be tested, Bandelier's determination of it will not be shaken. That may possibly be when some other scientist, his match in other preparation, shall have trudged studiously afoot (as Bandelier did) over as many miles of the Southwest as Vaca, and over the better part of Vaca's route. Any serious knowledge of New Mexico would convince these ambitious young students in the University of Texas that—as Bandelier proved years ago—Cabeza de Vaca never saw any portion of the Territory; and that is the only vital point in the whole matter.

The Meteorological Bureau of the Argentine Republic has published the eleventh volume of its 'Anales,' which is devoted to an account of the climates of San Jorge, Isla de los Estados, Chos-Malal, Paramillo de Uspallata, and Potro Muerto. The volume contains tabulated results of observations and a discussion of the temperature, atmospheric pressure, humidity, nebulosity, rainfall, and winds in each of these localities.

The latest volume of 'Memorias' of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Madrid is occupied by an elaborate memoir by D. Mariano de la Paz Graells, entitled 'Fauna Mastodológica Ibérica.' This is a description of all the mammals of the Iberian peninsula, beginning with genus homo and ending with Lagomys, or "rat-hare." The work includes a bibliography, a glossary, and a discussion of methods of classification. The concluding portion contains an historical and ethnographical account of the inhabitants of the country and articles on the improvement and acclimation of animals. In an appendix is a bibliography of the prehistoric anthropology of Spain, by D. Gabriel Puig y Larraz. The volume is illustrated by plates and maps.

The Bulletin of the Société de Géographie, just published, with the exception of the report on the medals given by the Society in 1897, is wholly devoted to accounts of two expeditions in West Africa. Capt. Imbert describes an unexplored region to the north of the middle Senegal, almost uninhabited on account of the raids of the Moors. On the side of a precipitous mountain, of a formation apparently very similar to that of Roraima in Guiana, he discovered a village of stone huts, which he believes to have been constructed by a race nearly contemporaneous with the cave-dwellers. Capt. Julien gives a summary of the political and scientific results of his expedition in northeastern French Congo, involving a graphic description of the construction of a post by a band of 400 natives, which is interesting as showing their capacity for organized work.

The principal contents of the first number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for this year are a statement of the geographical results of the Horn Expedition to Central Australia, and an account of the crossing of Borneo in 1896-'97 by Dr. Nieuwenhuis. There is also a description of the "Moraine-amphitheatre" of the Lago di Garda, by Prof. T. Fischer. Maps accompany each of these papers.

The German "Poole's Index," whose inception we lately noticed, now comes to us through Lemcke & Buechner ('Bibliographie der Deutschen Zeitschriften-Litteratur'). It covers the year 1896, deals with the contents of about 275 principally scientific German periodicals, with all available information as to authorship, and, of course, with precise references to the source of each article. Deficient titles have been supplemented to indicate the nature of the subject; and subject cross-references are abundantly supplied. Abbreviations are not excessive, and the typography (in the Roman character) is admirably clear. The form is small quarto, with two columns to the page. At the end is an alphabetical and numbered list of the periodicals indexed, from which medical and technical are excluded. The difficulties in alphabetical arrangement presented by an inflected language may be well studied here, especially in the entries under generic rubrics, like *Heerwesen*. A specimen entry is: "Der Militarismus im Reich der Poesie, v. M. Spicer. 189 [the conventional number of the periodical]. III. 252-69." This modest undertaking, for which F. Dietrich is responsible, will, we trust, meet with the success which it merits.

—The *Atlantic* for March has an interesting article on the "Social and Domestic Life of Japan," by K. Mitsukuri. Why Japan should be the first Oriental state to assimilate enough of Western civilization to make it capable of entering the family of nations is a puzzle, and will remain so, even to the reader of this article. If we went further and said that it is obviously a puzzle which will never be unriddled, we should not risk very much. In reading this account we catch glimpses of a double social order in Japan—that in which we live, and of which our historians and anthropologists have investigated the origins, and at the same time another world, remote and alien from us, but a pleasanter world, perhaps, in many respects than our own. The statement that the "most precious heritage" of the country from the past is the imperial dynasty sounds like that devotion of the Englishman to the Empire, the Queen and royal family which we replace by devotion to the flag or the Constitution. This sentiment of allegiance has nothing to do with feudalism, for the feudal system in Japan was abolish-

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ed a generation ago, as everybody knows. All this may be stated in terms of Western and comparatively modern development; but the moment we go below the political superstructure, we find ourselves in the presence of social strata which go back to the beginning of time and are clearly connected with race peculiarities and religious habits lying entirely outside our horizon. Occupations are hereditary (a point much discussed just now in "theatrical circles" is what the great actor Danjuro, having no male child, will do for a successor), and is a family rather than an individual concern. Filial piety and a sort of immortal family continuity are both Japanese. At the next step we come upon a custom which to our habit of thought seems grotesque: in almost every middle-class house live "students," who are usually given board and lodging, and, in return for these, "answer the calls at the front entrance" and do other menial work. They do not seem to be apprentices. The article by Judge F. C. Lowell on "The Municipal Service of Boston" contains a very neat suggestion for those engaged in studying the "municipal problem"—that the municipal legislature in cities like Boston and New York plays a part in the body politic like that played by the vermiform appendix in the human body, before the operation for appendicitis was introduced. "Physicians tell us that this has no discoverable present use except to become the seat of disease."

—The *Century* is full of a great deal of interesting information about the Klondike: John Sidney Webb contributes a paper on "The River Trip," about which he speaks with authority, while Edward S. Curtis gives an account of the rush over the mountain passes. Both articles are illustrated. After reading them we feel that we have been reading an old story told under new conditions. Most of the incidents of mining life and features of mining society we have heard of in California and Australia. But the physical obstacles to be overcome in the Northwest are so serious that it is hard, even now, to believe in their being surmounted. The most readable paper in the number is on a very old subject—the Mammoth Cave—by John R. Procter, formerly State Geologist of Kentucky, with astonishing pictures by André Castaigne. Sara Y. Stevenson's glimpses of "Mexican Society in Maximilian's Time" contain one or two points of interest. Everything that she says about the unfortunate Maximilian goes to show that he was the victim of his own misunderstanding of his situation. Had he chosen to leave Mexico, he might have done so, but, like Napoleon, who sent him there, he was the dupe of his own fancies and day-dreams. Unlike Napoleon, he was disinterested, and went on dreaming long after the latter had rung the curtain down on his Mexican fiasco. The details here given of the episode, coming as they do from an eye-witness, have a certain historical value.

—In *Scribner's* for March, Mr. Walter A. Wyckoff begins his second volume of adventures among "The Workers." The scene is now in Chicago. "Hitherto I have been in the open country, and have found work with surprising readiness. Now I am in the heart of a congested labor market, and I am learning by experience what it is to look for work and fail to find it." The account of his first night in Chicago is not very different from what might have been anticipated, but Mr. Wyckoff seems as usual to forget that he is not a laboring man; his experiments are not real attempts at solving the "labor problem." No sane laboring man who should attempt, without friends, or home, or "character," or claim upon any one, to wander about by night in a "great, wicked city" could possibly hope for much assistance outside a station-house; and for an educated man, who has no training as a laborer at all, to make the attempt, is merely to engage in a laborious masquerade. This chapter really relates to the proceedings of a gentleman turned tramp, and the author is to be congratulated upon having survived the very disagreeable night of which he gives an account. As usual, the profanity and bestiality of his temporary associates are what most strikes him; we doubt if the workers as a rule will like to have "Clark" taken as a typical laboring man. An honest workman, driven by desperation to the point of accepting silver from a street-walker, would hardly burst into exultation over the fact that "There's two beers in this." Under the title of "A Pompeiian Gentleman's Home Life," E. Neville-Rolfe gives an entertaining description of the recently unearthed house of Aulus Vettius.

—A novelty in magazine literature is to be found in a pair of associated papers in *Harper's* on Austria—one by "an Eastern diplomat," the other by Mark Twain. Which throws most light on the great Austrian problem, it is difficult to say. The diplomat declares that the solution lies in the detachment of the German portion of the country, the extension of Germany to the Adriatic, and the creation of a veritable *Oester Reich* out of what is left, with Slavs, Magyars, and half-a-dozen other races as the component parts, and Hungary at the head. Mark Twain gives a semi-humorous account of the great sitting in the Reichsrath when Dr. Oton Lecher spoke for twelve hours (breaking all human records) in order to prevent the Government's pushing through the *Ausgleich*, while those of the opposite party, led by the great Wolf, made the House a pandemonium in an attempt to thwart the design of Dr. Lecher. Such scenes in a legislature present a problem of their own with reference to the future of Austria. Diplomats are proverbially expert at reading the riddles of the future, but any one who can tell to what the policy of Germany in the hands of the present Emperor will lead must have a dash of omniscience. Schoolboys in Germany are taught history and geography at once from a map on which the successive accretions to Prussian power within the past hundred and fifty years are exhibited; the question suggested being, "What will the present proprietor add to the domain?" Du Maurier's second instalment of "Social Pictorial Satire" contains an interesting account of Charles Keene, and a little essay on the whole subject from the time of Hogarth to himself; the illustrations are from *Punch*. The writer says of his own style, "The people I meet seem to me more interesting than funny," and he adds that he is well content to draw them "without any attempt at caricature." "Sam Weller, if you recollect, was fond of 'pootiness and wirtue.' I *so* agree with him. I adore them both, especially in women and children."

—Expert testimony of a kind to insure respect and induce conviction was that of M. Louis Havet at the Zola trial. This witness, a professor in the Collège de France and at the Sorbonne, attacked the famous memorandum or bordereau from the side, not of comparative chirography, but of mannerisms in script and in style—in other words, from the schoolmaster's point of view. He found Dreyfus impeccable in his French idiom, but careless of accents, omitting or misplacing them with French negligence carried to an extreme, and treating his cedillas in the same manner, with absolute inconsistency. Esterhazy, on the other hand, is most scrupulous in the matter of accentuation, and goes so far as to place the grave accent on the capital A of the preposition *à*—a nicety quite un-French, and indeed not rigorously observed even by printers. As to idiom, his writing abounds in turns of expression which betray one to whom the French language is not native. In the bordereau occurs the accented A; and the writer's "orthographic habits" otherwise accord with Esterhazy's, such as his perseverance in the practice (discountenanced by the Academy in 1878, and now obsolescent) of connecting *très* with the following adjective by a hyphen. The idiom further shows that the writer belonged in one of two classes—"those who know French badly because they have been ill-taught, or those who think in a foreign language," as Esterhazy's own style reveals that he does. If, concluded M. Havet, a Dreyfus document came before him as a French exercise, he would endorse upon it, "Très bien"; and this could not possibly be allowed to the bordereau.

—One of the recent anthologies which have come our way is edited by Mr. Arthur Waugh and published, in this country, by Henry Holt & Co. Its object is to bring together the choicest pamphlets which have appeared since the Elizabethan period, or at least as many of them as can find room in a series of four small octavo volumes. When one considers the sheer bulk of this class of literature, he will perceive the inevitable limitations of such an enterprise. Several single collections, ranging from 20,000 to 50,000 tracts, have been formed. Carlyle testifies that the British Museum contains above 36,000 on the Civil War alone, and yet Dr. Johnson calls the reign of Queen Anne "The Age of Pamphlets." Every variety of writer, from the most irresponsible Grub Street hack up to Edmund Burke, is represented among these fugitive pieces, and the subjects vary no less widely than the authors. Mr. Waugh begins his preface by stating the criterion which he has observed. "The object of the Pamphlet Library is to set before readers who are interested in the literary and constitutional history of our country [England], the text of those pamphlets or tractates which, besides possessing the only saving qualities of distinction and style, have also exercised a striking influence upon the current of events." Our sole criticism is that when "saving qualities of distinction and style" are made a test, all but classics are excluded, and choice is narrowed to a small circle of the standard authors whose works are not difficult of access. Thus, besides Sexby, whose dedication of 'Killing No Murder' is given, the volume of Political Pamphlets represents only Halifax, Arbuthnot, Steele, Swift, Bolingbroke, Junius, and Burke. The selections are very well chosen, and it is useful to have them printed in conjunction; but, leaving out less than three pages of Sexby, there is no reason why

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this part of the series should not be entitled, "Political Tracts by Great Masters of English Prose." Thus it will be seen that the volume, while full of excellent matter, does not illustrate the history of English politics in any novel way. Pursuant to Mr. Waugh's plan, "pamphlets of political, literary, religious, and dramatic significance" are to be digested under their respective heads. We have received three of the four volumes indicated by the preface, and as they do not take up the last two subjects, we gather that religion and the drama are to be bound together, or that the number of volumes will pass the limit which was first set. The literary tracts, from their bulk, have been published in two parts. Mr. Waugh is assisted by sub-editors, Mr. A. F. Pollard taking charge of politics and Mr. Ernest Rhys of literature. The one furnishes an introduction of 22 and the other of 31 pages. Each of these essays seeks to gauge the importance of the selections which accompany it, and to give them a setting in their present context. The work is skilfully done in both cases, and the series, though its title may require a little interpretation, deserves well of book-buyers in point of matter and of form.

PERKINS'S FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XV.

France under Louis XV. By James Breck Perkins. In two volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

During the five years which have passed since the publication of 'France under the Regency' Mr. Perkins has made good use of his time. His present subject is better than the preceding one, and, perhaps, considering this, he has taken unstinted pains to prepare for the execution of a worthy book. One need not beat about the bush before praising the outcome of so much labor. Mr. Perkins has produced a piece of sound scholarship without slighting either arrangement or style. He shows a just appreciation of values, holding a fair balance between the importance of his period and the importance of his reader's time. At no point can he be accused of wilful diffuseness. He is unconcerned with the national prejudices which have distorted so many histories of this age. In a word, we have before us a treatise which deserves to be read and considered carefully. It is well prepared, well digested, and well written.

One is frequently reminded that it has been the fate of France during the last 109 years to furnish the world with political object-lessons. But her career as an instructress began before the Revolution. One of Mr. Perkins's good qualities is that he is not for ever pointing morals. We have failed to find a single passage in which he sapiently philosophizes over the corrupt and crippled government of Louis XV. A casual remark here and there is all the guidance one needs in reaching the conclusion that democracy will be hard pushed to invent and execute a more shameful series of failures than France endured under the "Bien-Aimé." There is a vast difference between accepting this result as an abstract proposition and holding it with conviction. Mr. Perkins has very few novelties. His merit lies in solidity of proof and directness of statement. He is the more severe upon the old régime because he is just and moderate in expression. He reminds one of Aretino's epigram: "If you really wish to damage a man's character, tell the truth about him."

The France of Louis XV., with her twenty million inhabitants, her inherited prestige, her economic resources, her settled absolutism, and her intellectual leaders, claims a great deal of direct attention; yet we imagine that almost every one who studies her history during this epoch has an ulterior purpose. He does not rest content with collecting information concerning the wars of the Polish Succession, the Austrian Succession, and the Seven Years. He does not regard the administrations of Fleury and Choiseul as things complete in themselves. He is much more apt to view the reign in the light of certain overshadowing relations and effects. He is hurrying on in mind to the Revolution, or to the triumph of Prussia, or to the spread of the British Empire. With all three of these grandiose movements the age of Louis XV. is unmistakably connected. One effects a real economy of time in reaching them by way of Versailles and its court. Without seeing how the monarchy was degraded from its central place in popular affection, one cannot approach the Revolution. Without seeing how a fatuous council squandered the dynamic advantages of France's political position, one cannot understand the rise of German military or British naval power.

When the war of the Spanish Succession closed, France was confessedly weak. What it had cost to foist an impotent Bourbon upon a nation that hated her and her royal family was not known at the time, even with Marlborough's victories fresh in remembrance. Yet before Fleury's death the country had renewed herself, and was, moreover, giving promise of a new wealth. No extraordinary wisdom was required to retain at least a place of distinction. True national prosperity would have been more difficult of achievement, though with the normal advance of the middle class it was not impossible. Had a Richelieu been needed at the Foreign Office, and a Turgot at the Financial Bureau, Louis XV. might be excused for neglect to secure them. A Ministry of All the Talents would probably have proved troublesome, and certainly was unnecessary. Average common sense in seizing the chances which the European situation presented might have made France conterminous with the province of Gaul and the centre of a colonial system. A warlike, patriotic, and skilful race, with enormous physical advantages in its favor, was humiliated by the incredible folly of its government.

We should have been glad to see Mr. Perkins devote rather more space than he does to a careful delineation of the man whose defects of character were the chief cause of this mischief. Individually he deserves little notice, though the degree of his intelligence was higher than has generally been supposed. But the more debased his life and the more callous his indifference to public duty, the more necessary it becomes to depict him as he was. A full-length portrait of Louis XV. is indispensable to an artistic contrast between the issues at stake and the spirit with which they were waged. Mr. Perkins at different times and places gives us touches of character; what we miss is a lively and faithful account of how the King conducted himself while the realm was going to the dogs. We are not, of course, referring to unsavory episodes, but to the routine of court life in all its dreadful ennui. The same sort of description which Mr. Perkins gives of the life led by Stanislas Leszczynski at Nancy would, *mutatis mutandis*, have been serviceable in showing how the absolute master of the most prominent European state used his opportunities. We have little to find fault with when we come to Louis's part in foreign politics. While apathetic in nearly everything, his leanings towards association with the Spanish Bourbons were reasonably strong, and Mr. Perkins hits off his misplaced zeal. Careless to the point of criminal folly where the national interests of France were involved, he extended a generous patronage to the children of Elizabeth Farnese. If Don Carlos wanted an establishment in Italy, he should have it as a free gift from the head of the Bourbon family. Kings haggling over terms in forming alliances with relatives present the spectacle of bourgeois traders. In this spirit the Family Compacts were drawn. "If we were not charged with obtaining a principality for Don Philip," wrote Argenson after the victories of Maurice de Saxe, "we might keep our conquests in Flanders for ourselves."

Passing from the sovereign to his reign, we shall attempt to touch upon only two of its aspects. Firstly, it forms a notable chapter in the emancipation of Europe from mediævalism, and, secondly, through the Seven Years' War, it is connected with some of the most surprising political developments which our century has witnessed. When Dubois and Orleans both died in 1723, to be followed by Bourbon acting under the young King, the modern spirit seemed pretty thoroughly shackled in France. Religious toleration was far from being achieved, the power of the crown was despotic, and criticism was in its swaddling-clothes. Before Louis's death, persecution had stopped, public affairs were publicly discussed, and a class unknown to France since the death of the communal movement was established on the solid cornerstone of wealth. Comparing England and France in 1726, one observes that the former enjoyed to a much greater extent the advantages which flow both from agriculture and from commerce. France had more arable soil, but the country's progress was hindered by its system of land tenure. Without a change of social and political conditions, the scope for improvement in this direction was small. To be sure, the number of peasant proprietors in 1789 has often been underestimated, but no general revival of agriculture could precede the abolition of privileges. The case was different with commerce. Even under the barbarous political economy of the last century, with its incessant paternalism, with its chartered companies, with its monopolies, and its half-defunct guilds, trade could and did expand. If the middle class in England drew its prosperity from more sources than were available to the bourgeoisie, French commerce nevertheless made strides under Louis XV. It provided the intellectual basis of the Revolution by enormously increasing that part of the community which, being neither privileged nor submerged, was intelligent, active, and ambitious. Recollecting that Mr. Ruskin becomes excited when the present greatness of England is ascribed to her coal, we trust we do not appear too physiocratic in claiming commercial origin for a large share of the changes wrought during this reign. Mr. Perkins sets store by Law, who cer-

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tainly did kindle a wonderful amount of interest in business speculation on a large scale.

Of more consequence still was the peace which Fleury, aided by Walpole, gave Europe. Twenty-five years of repose came like a godsend to France. England did not benefit more by the reign of Henry VII. The commercial wealth of fifteenth-century Italy was no more a cause of the Renaissance than was the commercial wealth of eighteenth-century France a cause of the Revolution. Fleury's part in the revival extended far beyond exchequer reforms. He made the royal *corvée* a blessing in disguise, and, by settling the coinage, changed the whole nature of credit. The livre, which, as Mr. Perkins tells us, had been reduced to one-seventy-second of its Carolingian value, became honest money in June, 1726. We cite his comment both for its historical truth and for its contemporary application. "The currency was at last established on an immovable basis, and this measure did more to accelerate the increase of wealth and the development of industry than all the commercial codes at which Colbert so earnestly labored. . . . Of all the causes which assisted in the industrial development of France in the eighteenth century, this, which has received the least attention, was perhaps the most potent."

We would briefly connect with this subject of commerce and industrial progress Mr. Perkins's chapters on the intellectual and social changes of the reign, and on the influence of literature. They are, in our opinion, his best. To write without tediousness of Voltaire, Rousseau, and the encyclopædists is in itself creditable, following as one must do now in the wake of many eminent critics. Mr. Perkins is successful because his ideas represent reflection applied to genuine knowledge.

With Mme. de Pompadour and Bernis for advisers, with Richelieu and Soubise for generals, Louis XV. found himself confronted in the Seven Years' War with two greedy and determined governments controlled respectively by Frederick the Great and William Pitt. The million men who perished in the contest did not throw their lives away in a dynastic quarrel—that is some comfort. Whatever the immediate cause, imperial questions were unfolded long before the end came, and every one save the King of France played as though for double or quits. That Mr. Perkins writes for an American audience is clear from his assumption that we know enough about the French and Indian War. He reserves his space for Europe and the East. One of his general contentions—and this has reference to our own country—is that the French did not lose their colonies from lack of national aptitude. They showed marked ability in establishing a hold on inferior races, adapting themselves skilfully to circumstances, and making a good impression where the English had only aroused prejudice. When the fight began, officers and men fulfilled all reasonable expectation. "In India, Dupleix was the equal of Clive; in America, no one displayed military or political talents superior to those of Montcalm; most of the officers of the navy did the best that was possible with the material that was furnished them: the root of the evil was at Versailles."

The most scientific and philosophical of modern historians must sometimes feel the need of a hero. Mr. Perkins, unable to find one in France, turns Frederick of Prussia to account. We hasten to state that our author preserves ethical standards intact, and never once enters Droysen's amusing plea that Frederick considered himself morally justified in seizing Silesia. It is hard to maintain an attitude of indifference in the presence of sheer ability. Mr. Perkins would be a rare bird indeed if he let slip the chance to diversify his pages with the comments of one who to a quick wit added a sharp word. Arneth has helped him noticeably in presenting the acts and character of Maria Theresa, though her bitter implacability is allowed to shine through his narrative. Connecting the Queen of Hungary with her most notorious female contemporary in France, we may say that Mr. Perkins renders full justice to Mme. de Pompadour's accomplishments. Even in hell there are gulfs of varying profundity. Mme. de Pompadour was graceful and had large views. Beneath her circle was the deeper depth of the Du Barry.

Mr. Perkins affords the reviewer a scant gleaning of slips and mistakes. If he falls into any serious errors of fact, they have eluded us. At rare intervals he leaves the path of mathematical exactness, but the following examples will prove that our worst censure of this nature is but slight: Vol. i., p. 23: "There were no families in France during the eighteenth century exercising a political influence to be compared with that of the Bedfords, or the Pelhams, or the Newcastles in England." As family stems one would hardly distinguish between the Pelhams and Newcastles. Vol. i., p. 337: "For the first time the cry was heard, 'Long live Frederick the Great!' Many a sovereign has been thus greeted in his lifetime, but since Charlemagne, only Peter of Russia and Frederick of Prussia have retained the title with posterity." Is it quibbling to recall the Saxon Emperor, Otto I., and Alfred of England? Vol. ii., p. 449: Mr. Perkins implies that Voltaire was out of France when living at Ferney. "The events of the Revolution would not have frightened Voltaire into conservatism. His body he would have kept safely at Ferney, but reactionary principles would not have been advocated by his trenchant pen." Ferney was close to the frontier but still in France. We cite two or three cases of this kind to emphasize Mr. Perkins's accuracy, not his inaccuracy. In proportion to the bulk of the work the number of slips is insignificant.

DANISH ARCTIC EXPEDITIONS, 1605-1620.

The Danish Expeditions to Greenland in 1605, 1606, and 1607; to which is added Capt. James Hall's voyage to Greenland in 1612.

The Expedition of Captain Jens Munk to Hudson's Bay, in Search of a Northwest Passage, in 1619-'20. Edited with notes by C. C. A. Gosch. London: The Hakluyt Society. 1897. Cxvii., 204, pp. and cxviii., 184 pp. 8vo, with maps and illustrations.

In several previous volumes the Hakluyt Society has published new editions of the original accounts of all the English voyages in search of a Northwest Passage to India which were undertaken between 1576 and 1632, when, after the return of Foxe and James, the search was discontinued for a considerable period. These voyages form a distinct and connected series. Between the years indicated, only one expedition was sent out with the same object from any country besides England, viz., the Danish expedition to Hudson Bay under Jens Munk in 1619-'20; and inasmuch as that expedition was piloted by Englishmen and was intended to follow up the results obtained upon some of the English voyages, it may fairly be looked upon as closely connected with the latter. The Society, therefore, deemed it desirable to complete the series of works relating to the expeditions in question by adding an English version of Munk's narrative of his voyage; especially since Munk's book, which was published in Danish in 1624, has never been translated into any other language, and its contents have been known to the world at large only through the medium of incomplete and unreliable abstracts. This having been decided upon, it was also resolved to supplement the English version of Munk's 'Navigatio Septentrionalis' by the addition of the voyages of James Hall from Denmark and England to Greenland in 1605, 1606, 1607, and 1612. The latter were in some respects forerunners of Munk's expedition, and form with it a notable chapter in the history of Danish Arctic enterprise. Nor were these Danish voyages to Greenland without connection with England and the English voyages in search of a Northwest Passage, since the chief pilot, James Hall, to whom the credit of the discoveries made chiefly belongs, was an Englishman, while one of the vessels of the expedition was commanded by another Englishman, John Knight, who in the following year directed one of the English expeditions above referred to. John Cunningham, a Scot, was in charge of the expedition of 1605, and afterwards commanded one of the vessels on the second voyage. In addition to other reasons which made the reprint desirable, by joining together the accounts of all the voyages to Greenland in which Hall took part, it has been possible to collect in one place all that is known of the life and work of a man who occupies a very honorable place among early Arctic explorers.

The present work consists of two distinct parts, or "books," each constituting a volume complete in itself and with its own index. Book I. contains reprints from Purchas (1625) of Hall's own accounts of the voyages of 1605 and 1606, and of Baffin's account of the voyage of 1612; also a reprint of Gatonbe's relation of the latter voyage, taken from Churchill's 'Collections of Voyages and Travels.' To these are added another account of the voyage of 1605 by Hall himself, accompanied by maps, now first printed from a manuscript in the British Museum, and translations of two Danish accounts of the voyages of 1605 and 1606. Two appendices follow, one treating of an ancient chart now preserved in the Royal Library at Stockholm, of much interest in connection with Hall's voyages, and here reproduced in photolithography. The final chapter or second appendix discusses one of the mythical islands of the boreal Atlantic which long held a place on the charts, under the name of Busse Island.

Book II. contains a translation of Jens Munk's 'Navigatio Septentrionalis,' made from the edition of 1624, and corrected by means of Munk's original manuscript, which is still preserved in the University Library of Copenhagen. This is preceded by a brief but interesting biography of Munk himself, in which some curious and widely received

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errors relating to his life and death are corrected. The volume is completed by a voluminous commentary on the voyage and the map prepared by Munk and illustrating his contributions to geography.

The discovery of Greenland by Icelanders in the tenth century, and the possession by Norway in the thirteenth century of colonies in both Iceland and Greenland, are matters of historical record. Later, with Norway, these colonies became a part of the dominions of the King of Denmark. The communication between Greenland and Denmark, after having been kept up for five hundred years, entirely ceased in the fifteenth century, owing to various causes. Of these the principal one was, perhaps, the fact that, the revenue from Greenland being specially allotted to the royal household, the trade had become a monopoly, and was neglected when war and other pressing affairs took up the attention of the King. The existence of this distant dependency was, however, not forgotten, and, during the sixteenth century, the proposition that the former communication should be reopened was several times mooted, partly on account of the interest felt in the fate of the Scandinavian colonists, who were still supposed to exist, and partly in the hope that a profitable trade might spring up. Nothing, however, was done until the matter was taken up by King Christian IV., who sent out three well-equipped expeditions in 1605-6-7, for the purpose of ascertaining the best route to Greenland, of exploring the land, of searching for the old colony, and of re-establishing there the dominion of the Crown.

The expedition of 1605 consisted of three vessels of the Danish navy under the command of John Cunningham, assisted by James Hall, who acted as first officer and pilot. The latter was a man of some Arctic experience, and may have accompanied Davis in 1586. The expedition sailed on the 2d of May, and took the route between the Orkneys and Shetland and so nearly due west to Davis Strait. When near Greenland, one of the vessels, commanded by Lindenow, separated from the others, on account of some difference of opinion as to the best route, and forced its way through the ice to the coast, where, after various perils, it made harbor and remained several days trading with the natives for furs, making prisoners of two Greenlanders, who were carried back to Denmark. Cunningham and Hall, with the other vessels, continued to the northward, reaching the coast on the 12th of June, at a point which they named King Christian's Fjord, now recognized as Itivdlek Fjord of modern maps. Thence Hall in the pinnace explored the coast northward nearly to Disco Bay. What was supposed to be a silver mine was discovered on this excursion. After Hall's return to the vessel on the 10th of July, the expedition sailed for Denmark, carrying with them four natives whom Cunningham had captured in accordance with his instructions; the object of this abduction doubtless being to procure men who, after some teaching in Denmark, might be used as interpreters on future voyages. As a set-off it may be mentioned that the expedition landed two condemned criminals in Greenland and abandoned them there; this being construed by the authorities as an act of clemency, giving to these wretches some faint chance of preserving their lives. Both incidents throw a curious light on the customs of the time.

In 1606 five vessels were sent out under the command of Lindenow, with Hall as pilot; but only two seem to have reached Greenland, where most of their energy was expended in loading up with the supposed silver ore. On this occasion, also, several natives were secured with their boats and carried away by force. These people, though treated kindly in Denmark, did not survive long, and it is told that the last one made a desperate attempt to get back to Greenland from Denmark in his kayak, was overtaken and brought back, and thereupon pined away and soon died.

The ore brought back turned out to be worthless, and the second voyage resulted only in disappointment, but the King decided to make one more effort to find the ancient colony, and in 1607 two vessels set out for this purpose, under the command of Carsten Richardson, the course of the navigation being placed in the hands of Hall. They took the same route as before, but kept more to the northward, reaching the eastern coast of Greenland between the parallels of 63 degrees and 64 degrees. They were prevented from landing by the pack ice, and, after many fruitless endeavors, were obliged to set sail for home. It was not until the middle of the century that another attempt was made to discover the site of the lost colonies. In 1612, however, a private expedition was sent out by certain merchant adventurers of London, under the command of Hall. Nothing is known about the precise object of the voyage, but as a goldsmith was sent with them it may be surmised that faith in the supposed silver mine played a part in it. Two vessels were dispatched, which skirted the Greenland coast from the vicinity of Godthaab northward. The larger vessel was left in the southern Isortok Fiord, while Hall explored in the smaller one. On his return he took his ships to Itivdlek, and then started in the smaller one for the silver mine. Halting in Amerdlok Fiord, on the 22d of July, Hall was killed by a Greenlander, with a dart, as he was in a boat alongside the ship. He was buried on one of the islands; his comrades proceeded to the mine which the goldsmith tested and found wanting; after which the expedition returned to England.

The expedition of Munk, in 1619, was sent out to search for a Northwest Passage, on the western shore of Hudson Bay, where the incomplete explorations of Button in 1613 left room for hope of a practicable outlet to the westward. It was composed of two vessels of the Danish navy, a sloop called the *Lamprey* and a small ship named the *Unicorn*. The party comprised sixty-four men and officers, and sailed from Denmark May 9, 1619. They sighted the southern extreme of Greenland, entered Frobisher Bay, passed through Hudson Strait to Hudson Bay, and finally entered the estuary of the Churchill River, the "Hubbart's Hope" of the early explorers, now known as Port Churchill. Here the party wintered. They were unsupplied with proper clothing or equipment for an Arctic winter, their barber surgeon was utterly incompetent, the men gradually succumbed to scurvy and cold, and by spring only Munk and two others were left alive. These, by great exertions and after great hardships, got the sloop out of her winter quarters and succeeded in reaching Norway in September, 1620.

The journal of Munk is of pathetic interest, picturing with artless simplicity their sufferings and his final escape, which, under the circumstances, bordered on the miraculous. The journal shows him in a most favorable light as regards everything but Arctic experience. He opens his heart to the reader, who feels that he is dealing with a true man. While the voyage was by no means without geographical results, the account of it is more interesting as the story of a good and simple soul, sore beset, yet maintaining faith, hope, and courage.

The volumes exhibit the usual elegance of the Society's publications, and are well indexed.

A Short History of British Colonial Policy. By Hugh Edward Egerton. 1897. London: Methuen & Co.

Mr. Egerton's modest preface disarms the critic. He apologizes, not being an author of eminence, for adding to the number of books, but reminds us that while various phases of colonial policy have been treated, no one has hitherto dealt with the subject systematically on historical lines. But on many accounts we must pronounce his apologies unnecessary. A brief glance will satisfy the reader that a valuable and interesting book lies before him, and from the multiplication of such books the world does not yet cry to be delivered. The author does not attempt a narrative of events, the evolution of a story from a mass of authorities. He proposes to give a mass of opinions, and therefore to allow the authorities to speak for themselves. The free employment of quotations which results from this method produces an agreeable variety in the style, and adds weight to the conclusions of the author.

Five periods are recognized—the period of beginnings, that of trade ascendancy, that of systematic colonization and the granting of responsible government, that of the *laisser-aller* principle, and that of "Greater Britain." When Englishmen began to establish colonies, the Government had no colonial policy. It chose the easy course of letting the colonists take care of themselves, and, in the cases where it undertook to govern, it very soon abandoned the task, and contented itself with a formal recognition of its authority. But by the middle of the seventeenth century the merchants of England had come to influence the policy of its Government, and for a century at least the theory was unquestioned that colonies existed for the good of the trade of the mother country. The great wars of the earlier half of the eighteenth century were wars for commercial supremacy; the colonies were defended against other Powers that they might be made use of by English merchants. The mercantile system, however, caused the loss of the American colonies, and the treatment of those that remained became much more liberal. For a time there was something like a policy of systematic colonization, together with a disposition to grant self-government; but with the victory of free trade, and the resulting prosperity, there came a feeling that, since the colonies would eventually be independent, it might be as well for the mother country not to trouble herself about them. This feeling was short-lived, and at the envious outbursts of other Powers England awoke to the possibilities of a permanent colonial empire.

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Such a work as this appeals as a whole primarily to Englishmen. To them it cannot fail to be wonderfully suggestive. They may well feel that the free spirit of their institutions has been the great cause of the prosperity of their colonies. The policy of the home Government, as carried out by the various functionaries that have attempted the regulation of the colonies, has been almost invariably unwise. Many excellent governors have been sent out, but they have been thwarted by the interference of the Colonial Office, or recalled by the change of ministers, before their judicious measures could take effect. Many foolish governors also have been put in charge of the colonies, and they have sometimes done irreparable mischief. Parliament long ago practically recognized its incompetency to legislate for the colonies, and the general result has been that the more important of them have taken the working out of their destinies into their own hands. The success of England's colonial policy, so far as it has been successful, may be fairly said to be due to its letting the colonies have their own way. The American colonies were lost by trying to govern them from England; the others would have been lost or ruined had not this practice been abandoned.

Readers of Mr. Bryce's 'Impressions of South Africa' will be interested in comparing his brief sketch of British policy with Mr. Egerton's detailed account. With some exceptions, the latter confirms Mr. Bryce's judgments, and it is highly satisfactory to find these independent writers reaching substantially the same results. Upon this part of Mr. Egerton's book, and upon those relating to the existing colonial possessions of England, we shall not dwell, although we may advise those who think that the development of the Dominion of Canada receives less attention from Americans than it deserves, to consult Mr. Egerton's pages. On the other hand, the policy of England toward those colonies which grew into the United States is a matter which deserves very different treatment from that which it has been the fashion to give it. The view taken in our school histories is, as a rule, shamefully inadequate and outrageously chauvinistic. We cannot but urge those who wish to teach American history that is true rather than popular to prepare themselves by studying Mr. Egerton's book. A full half of it is devoted to the affairs of the North American colonies, and it is a most valuable repertory of facts commonly ignored by our popular writers. Our country has recently escaped an appalling peril due almost entirely to the senseless traditional hatred of England instilled into the mind of every pupil in our public schools. We know of no better corrective for this feeling than such an impartial examination of the records as Mr. Egerton lays before us. His sympathies, so far as he displays them, seem to be rather with than against the colonies, and his research has been most extensive. He reveals much that was injudicious and exasperating in the conduct of the imbecile statesmen who had charge of the government of our colonies; but that these colonies were oppressed, according to the standard of oppression in those days, he conclusively disproves. We must confess that the reader will encounter some dry passages in this book. That, however, is to be charged to the nature of the subject, not to the author's treatment of it.

Evolutional Ethics and Animal Psychology. By E. P. Evans, author of 'Animal Symbolism in Ecclesiastical Architecture,' 'The Criminal Prosecution and Capital Punishment of Animals,' etc. D. Appleton & Co. 1898. Pp. 386, including a bibliography and an index.

To all "disinterested" lovers of equity and of anecdote and gossip this book will be welcome. It is a plea for a recognition of the inalienable rights (within limits which, it must be confessed, are left by the author somewhat vague) of the lower animals to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, and is composed, in the really charming proportion, for a scientific treatise, of a score of pertinent and often recondite illustrations to a unit of theory.

It should be said at once that the title of the book is unfortunate. To perhaps the majority of the "profession" in matters ethical the phrase "evolutional ethics" is chiefly significant of what the person who takes it seriously fails to understand. Happily, however, neither the phrase nor the special implications of it that offer themselves to criticism are essential to any portion of Prof. Evans's argument.

"The only firm foundation of animal ethics" —of the claim in behalf of animals to a recognition in the world of morals—Prof. Evans's thesis affirms, "is animal psychology. It is through the portal of spiritual kinship erected by modern evolutional science that beasts and birds, 'our elder brothers,' as Herder calls them, enter into the temple of justice, and enjoy the privilege of sanctuary against the wanton or unwitting cruelty hitherto authorized by the assumptions and usurpations of man."

In primitive societies, Prof. Evans says, tracing not so much the implications of evolutional ethics (whatever in the language of reason that may mean!) as the successive stages in the history of morals, the only basis of moral obligation that is in practice recognized is bodily as distinguished from spiritual kinship—community of ancestry, membership of the same tribe. Societies less primitive recognize the bond of a common worship. Societies still less primitive recognize the bond of a common humanity, of a kinship that is spiritual. And to the benefits of a spiritual (and even of a physical) kinship the lower animals have every right.

It is in the elaboration of the last of these propositions that the most serviceable portion, we should say—the chapters forming the second part—of Prof. Evans's book consists. It is only on an anthropocentric theory of the universe that an anthropocentric ethics can be justified; and an anthropocentric theory of the universe is at the present day an anachronism simply. Earlier "speculators," notably theologians, have endeavored to make good a distinction between man as in some sort essentially possessed of rights, and the lower animals as in some sort essentially possessed of nothing of the kind, but they have been doubly ill-advised in their venture. The differences upon which they have fastened have been singularly devoid of ethical significance; and there is, in any event, no sufficient reason to believe such differences exist. In the chapters "Mind in Man and Brute," "Progress and Perfectibility in the Lower Animals," "Ideation in Animals and Men," "Speech as a Barrier between Man and Beast," and "The Æsthetic Sense and Religious Sentiment in Animals," Prof. Evans argues the case in the negative, and marshals admirably the evidence in support of it.

As our author is a scholar, he will not regard it as "small fault-finding" to note that he has in many places in this book not said what, plainly enough (he is always perspicuous), he means. It should also, perhaps, be said that in the matter of works on psychology in general the bibliography includes too little or too much. It is difficult to conceive why works on psychology in general should be given a place in such bibliography at all; and surely, to choose one instance out of several, it is little better than caprice, in a case in which the analogy between man and brute is the main concern, to enroll Bain's 'The Senses and the Intellect,' and to omit his 'Emotions and the Will.'

La Jeunesse de Napoléon: Brienne. Par Arthur Chuquet. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 8vo, pp. 494.

Our Paris correspondent has anticipated our review of this work, but it may still be worth while to study the author's method. He has thought, and, as the result shows, has rightly thought, that full acquaintance with the surroundings of an historic person at each stage of his development will enable us better to understand the man. He has, therefore, devoted an opening chapter to the island of Corsica, its history, the character of its people, its relations to Genoa and to France, the aspirations of the people, their deep sense of oppression, their amiable traits as well as their intense explosive passions; their persistence, also, as shown in their vendettas and their attempts at revolution. He connects Napoleon with all this by sketching the traits in which the Emperor revealed himself as a true Corsican—vain, boastful, swept by gusts of feeling, careless of consistency or even of truth, bombastic, yet with a basis of great powers all his own, and the redeeming quality of never forgetting a kindness.

An outline of the family history traces the pedigree of both father and mother, and describes the peculiarities of each, both natural and acquired. We are made acquainted also with the circle of near relatives and friends, the nurse and the housekeeper, and the bitter poverty of the whole establishment which led the father to cultivate the friendship of those in power, and to besiege the Government to get scholarships for his children in the French public schools.

Brienne is shown to have been no military school in any proper sense, but only one of a dozen schools under the charge of different orders of priests, where children of decayed and impoverished members of the nobility were educated for the public service at the charge of the treasury. Beginning with a primary instruction, the scholars were taught an ordinary curriculum, including some Latin, mathematics, history, geography, etc. The differences among these schools have been traced by M. Chuquet with singular industry. He tells us the characteristics of the superior at the head of each, of the members of the faculties, and the special reputation which the schools enjoyed. We are thus made to understand just what the Brienne school was, and why the young Corsican with his Italian patois had to put time upon his French that others would give to dancing or to poetry, and was handicapped in his competition with his mates, who were native Frenchmen.

But the boy showed abilities which gave him the reputation of one who might have a future, though not high in class standing.

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His success in mathematics made him choose the artillery as his corps when he was transferred to the École Militaire at Paris. At that time the artillery was the corps d'élite of the army, and represented the intellectual side of the military profession. It showed what stood for brilliant school work, therefore, when Bonaparte, a boy of sixteen, was sent by his school, second in a list of fourteen, to be examined at Metz in competition with graduates of other schools from all parts of the kingdom for admission to the artillery. The chief examiner was Laplace, the author of the 'Mécanique Celeste.' Bonaparte passed forty-second in a list of a hundred and eight, and was one of those immediately awarded a lieutenancy instead of being put on probation as a supernumerary. Considering his youth, for he was among the youngest of the competitors, his school work had been successful.

The author takes up with great detail the careers of Bonaparte's schoolmates, both at Brienne and at the École Militaire. It is full of interest, for it shows not only how many of them became distinguished in their country's service, but how close were the relations which the Emperor maintained with them after he acquired power. To have been his schoolmate or his teacher was a recommendation which never lost its power. As the list of those he employed or promoted grows, the impression deepens that, whatever his faults, he never lost the kindly recollection of his playmates and competitors in the schools. This was enough to make him erase a name from the list of émigrés, though the man had fought against the republic. It was enough to have professed repentance and the desire to return to France. What might seem a mere school list is skilfully worked up, enlivened here and there by contact with the great central figure, and made to have a cumulative effect in illustrating the personal qualities of Napoleon himself.

The chapter on "Garrisons and Leaves-of absence," which closes the book, is a similar bit of good workmanship, in which the petty experiences of a young officer in his first stations and camps in time of peace are made to throw light upon the process by which Bonaparte was growing and developing in the period just preceding the great Revolution. A home visit to Corsica after seven years of constant separation from his family proved the genuine affection with which he loved them all, and the enthusiastic rebound of his feelings towards the picturesque but half-savage island of his nativity, of which he had dreamed that he might be the emancipator.

The extended studies of all phases of the circumstances surrounding the young Bonaparte seem in each instance to be carefully planned with a view to the creation of strong local color. A good deal of art was needed to prevent this from appearing to be the undue exaltation of unimportant details into significant facts by virtue of their mere connection with the hero; but M. Chuquet has had the ability to succeed in his task. He has made an atmosphere of time and place, of social and official relations, in which the young student seems very real and comprehensible, and fits into his place and his surroundings in a very natural way. As separate studies of school methods, of military life, of society both Corsican and French, and of the antecedents of men who made their mark upon their epoch, the book will be very useful, apart from its connection with Napoleon.

Marriage Customs in Many Lands. By the Rev. H. N. Hutchinson, B.A., etc. With many illustrations. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

In preparing this volume, the writer's object, so we are told, was not to discuss the scientific questions connected with the origin of marriage, but to present to the general reader a careful account of some of the quaint and interesting customs that have prevailed, or may yet be in force, in different portions of the world. In doing this, he was obliged to trust, in good part, to the works of travellers and others, and this has occasionally led him to the use of a terminology that might have been modified to advantage. Take, for instance, the statement that marriage by purchase prevails to some extent in India (p. 4), in Morocco (p. 98), among some of our own Indians, etc., etc., and it is difficult to reconcile it with the fact that, either wholly or in part, the so-called purchase money was handed over to the bride. Evidently in a case of this kind there was no question of buying and selling as we understand it, but rather it seems to have been an ingenious device for providing the young woman with a dowry. So, too, it seems hardly fair to say that she was bought, even if the father retained the whole of the purchase money, when she could at any time put an end to the transaction by refusing to carry out her part of the contract. Instances like these are, no doubt, survivals from the times when women were bought, but they are not bona-fide marriages by purchase any more than the custom of the Arabs, Turcomans, and others of "carrying off the bride" can be said to be a marriage by capture, when the woman is a party to the proceeding and actually connives at her seeming abduction. In other words, in these and all similar cases, the element of compulsion is wanting, and without it there can be no marriage either by purchase or by capture.

It is well also to remember that our author, even within the limits he has marked out for himself, does not profess to have exhausted the subject, and consequently that other forms of marriage may and, we may add, often do co-exist in those lands in which some of the more curious customs prevail. Penny weddings, for instance, and Fleet marriages, to say nothing of the purchase of a wife (p. 304), and "marrying over the tongs" or over a sword, have taken place in Great Britain within comparatively recent times; and yet to suppose that they were the only forms of marriage that existed in that country, or that they were even general, would be as great an error as it would be to infer that "spiritual marriages" were the rule in the United States because they had once been practised in Utah by the Mormons.

Useful as these hints may prove to the casual reader, they do not imply any reflection upon the author's plan of work, or upon the way in which he has carried it out. Indeed, so far is this from being the case that the very reverse is true; for it is no exaggeration to say that in the collection of quaint and curious customs he has brought together, and in the pleasant, gossipy manner in which he describes them, he fulfils to the letter the promise of his introduction. Literally speaking, in the search for material, he takes us from China to Peru—among all sorts and conditions of men; and he shows us, as in a panorama, a number of the many ways in which marriages are or have been celebrated at different times and by different peoples. To enumerate a tithe of these customs would lead us far astray, and we content ourselves with observing that, while they differ widely in some of their details, yet, on comparing them one with another, and noting the peculiar features that give to each its distinctive character, they will be found, as a rule, to be survivals of marriage either by purchase or by capture. Even among ourselves—and we are graciously supposed to have wandered far from the savage originals—many of the ceremonies are but modified forms of the older customs. The best man, for example (p. 295), at a modern wedding represents the friend who in early times helped to carry off the bride; and the honeymoon, instead of being a pleasure trip, as it is with us, was a rapid and hurried flight from the anger of an outraged father. The bride's cake, we are told, takes us back to the *confarreatio* of the Romans, and the habit of giving presents to bridesmaids and groomsmen is a relic of the days when women were bought, as was the charivari of the early French settlers in the Mississippi valley.

The illustrations, of which there are twenty-four, are taken from photographs or from "sketches drawn by artists well acquainted with the scenes which they depict"; and it is a pleasure to be able to add that they are much above the average of such work. The Hindu bride and groom, a Norway bride in full dress, and a Quaker wedding are perhaps among the more striking of these pictures.

The Expositor's Greek Testament: The Synoptic Gospels. By Alexander Balmain Bruce, D.D., Professor of Apologetics, Free Church College, Glasgow. The Gospel of St. John, by Marcus Dods, D.D., Professor of Exegetical Theology, New College, Edinburgh. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1897.

This book, for one of its class, is unusually attractive. The page is broad, the margins are ample, the typography is neat and fairly accurate, the paper of a dead finish and nonbibulous, and the volume so light that, although comprising some nine hundred pages, it can be held conveniently in one hand. It is so bound, too, that it lies open at any desired page.

The favorable prepossession thus created is in some respects confirmed by the contents. To be sure, it is a step of doubtful expediency to model a commentary after one which proved successful half a century ago, viz., Alford's; for, as the resources, so the needs of Biblical students vary with every generation. Moreover, the comparison which the avowed imitation suggests is one that the present work can ill sustain. Its marginal equipment, both as respects the critical apparatus and the illustrative references, is conspicuously inferior to its predecessor's, while its exegetical rivalry will not be universally conceded. It does, however, excel the majority of similar works, whether of earlier or more recent date, in what may be called practical exposition. Its general comments, particularly on the first three Gospels, are unusually fresh, terse, apposite, suggestive, as the editor's previous publications prepare one to find them. An

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evident endeavor has been made, and with good success, to emancipate the teachings of Jesus from the limitations of time and place, and to show how they may become working forces in the life of to-day.

The feature of the work which will excite surprise is the taking of the so-called *Textus Receptus* as its basis. This step is all the more astonishing because of Professor Bruce's pervasive endeavor to break the domination of the "theological figment of inerrancy." That he should adopt a Protean and erroneous text, which has little but tradition in its favor, and is confessed to be "incomparably inferior" to recent attempted reproductions of the original, is inexplicable. The impression which this procedure gives of the present state of New Testament scholarship in Scotland is anything but complimentary. Probably nowhere else in Protestant Christendom would the perpetration of such an anachronism in a work of like pretensions with the present have been thought of. The editor's justifiable hesitancy about constructing a text ought not to have deterred him from at least adopting either that in which the leading critics concur, rendered accessible as it has been by Dr. Weymouth, or that which received the approval of the well-nigh two-score scholars of both continents who prepared the late revision of the English version. Congruously enough with this unintelligent conservatism we are treated to an account of the history of the printed text in which even the dates of the editions of Tischendorf and Tregelles are inaccurately given, and which betrays no sign that the labors of Griesbach, the editor who published a graded estimate of rival readings, in the light of the evidence available in his day, with a minuteness attempted by no other editor before or since, have ever been heard of. The comments made in the course of the work upon the standing textual problems are generally discreet; but the running citation of authorities, by reason of its meagreness, and its almost complete neglect of the early versions and fathers, amounts to little more than an ornamental fringe.

In the realm of strict exegesis Prof. Bruce's aim is not quite intelligible, nor are his results always sound. He does not shrink from quoting Greek and Latin authors without translating them, and on philological points is more likely to refer to Klotz, Lobeck, Hermann, Bäumlein, Passow, than to Winer or Buttmann or Liddell and Scott, although the latter authors may be no less explicit, and are ten times as accessible to the average student. Viteau's works on N. T. Grammar and Blass's seem to be unknown to him; but due recognition is given to Goodwin and to Burton's 'N. T. Moods and Tenses.' In his occasional attempts to handle philological niceties, he sometimes burns his fingers: for example, "ἀγαλλιάω is from ἄγαν and ἄλλομαι, to leap much" (p. 100). "ὁμοιώθη, Matt. xiii. 24, is an aorist used proleptically for the fut., as in I. Cor. vii. 28"; "ὑπάντησις = a chance or stealthy meeting; ἀπάντησις, an open, designed meeting" (p. 147); "ὅτι recitative. . . . introduces a suggested question: Why?" (Mk. ix. 28). His mode of dealing with delicate questions is illustrated in the Lord's prayer, where of the rendering "the evil one" he says, "The probability is in favor of the masculine, . . . but the change in the Revision is unfortunate." In reference to the story of the Gadarene demoniac he says, "The demoniac is an insane man; our Lord's 'Go,' in response to his request to enter into the swine, is a misunderstood 'Begone!'"; "there was doubtless a *coincidence* of the cure with the catastrophe"; "the number of the swine was possibly an exaggerated estimate." Of the various interpretations proposed for Matt. xxvi., 50, that adopted in the Revision, "*Do* that for which thou art come," is pronounced "the least satisfactory"; indeed, scant deference is paid to the Revised Version even in other cases (Mark vii., 19, for example) where it was mainly instrumental in introducing the translation now generally accepted. In several instances conflicting interpretations are introduced interrogatively and the reader is left to his own conclusions, a procedure recalling the famous exegete of the story who looked difficulties full in the face and *passed on*.

The desire of the author, evident alike in the Introduction and in the notes, to bring his work "up to date" in matters of criticism has made him somewhat unduly hospitable to theories which, if the future may be prognosticated from the past, are likely to prove ephemeral, and hence to give before long an antiquated cast to his work besides blurring somewhat at present the distinctness of its interpretations. The problem of the relation of our first three Gospels to one another through their underlying source or sources is one of the most delicate in literary criticism. But to solve it is the legitimate task of the critic, and not the prime business of the exegete. The latter's duty is to set forth the meaning which the given writer intended, or was originally understood, to convey by his language. To turn aside from that language to the consideration of conjectures about its origin, or its possible relation to similar utterances in other compositions, often tempts the interpreter to evade rather than discharge the task before him, and tends to confuse rather than enlighten his reader.

Prof. Dods, who deals with the Fourth Gospel, is largely exempted by the nature of the case from the temptation to blend criticism and exegesis. His preliminary account of the Gospel is fair and clear, although, like nearly all his predecessors, he fails to treat adequately of its internal characteristics in their relation to its genuineness. His exposition is carefully studied and sober, but lacks the pithy and condensed expression which gives freshness and movement to his associate's work. The latter is more helpful to the preacher, the former more valuable to the interpreter; but neither makes an indispensable addition to the apparatus of the thoroughly educated minister.

An Introduction to American Literature. By Henry S. Pancoast. Henry Holt & Co. 1898. 16mo, xiv. and 393 pp.

American Literature. By Katharine Lee Bates, Wellesley College. The Macmillan Co. 1898. 12mo, x., 325, and 10 pp.

Mr. Pancoast's is quite the best brief manual of his subject that we know—even better, for its humbler purpose, than the companion volume on English literature. National traits are well brought out without neglecting organic connections with the mother country. Forces and movements are as well handled as personalities, the influence of writers hardly less than their individuality. The book is patriotic without the scream of the eagle. While generally free from sectional prejudice, Mr. Pancoast (a Pennsylvanian) has in a few cases unduly emphasized writers of the Middle States. Certainly we should not include among them Bryant, whose formative period was passed in Massachusetts, and whose poetry derives its local color from Hampshire County. Elsewhere New Englanders will find much to be grateful for. Mr. Pancoast is cordial to the South—thoroughly appreciative of Lanier and just to Poe. Slavery is not suggested as a trammel on the literature of the Old South, but the author is duly hopeful for the New South, with its rich and individual promise.

Miss Bates's book is far from satisfactory. Not to enumerate her many errors of fact, we may remark that her style is so allusive that even where she is correct she will often fail to give correct ideas to those not already informed. There are fatal mistakes of perspective. Edward Bellamy and H. W. Mabie are mentioned in a book that does no kind of justice to Hawthorne. The last chapter, that on fiction, is quite the worst of all, and may suffer from haste in writing as well as insufficient study. There are rather unnecessary incursions into fields outside of literature, such as politics, music, and sociology, which exhibit blunders of almost the first magnitude. We intend to be candid, not cruel. Miss Bates has simply undertaken a task beyond her attainments. She has literary skill worthy of a better book. She is not often in bad taste, has humor, and says good things about life and books. One may frequently note a feminine charm in the insight that springs from affection. And here is a true saying: "In Jonathan Edwards and Benjamin Franklin, the two world-redeeming forces of spiritual aspiration and practical benevolence come into the sharpest contrast that our literature affords." The volume is attractively got up, and is illustrated with a fine collection of portraits. Both books are indexed.

The Sun's Place in Nature. By Sir Norman Lockyer. Macmillan. 1897. Pp. 360.

So far as form and style go, Mr. Lockyer writes well on every subject on which he employs his pen. Clearness is apparent, and vigor makes itself felt on all his pages. He has also done work that has given him a high place in the scientific world. And yet, with this double advantage, it is impossible to recommend his works, either to the student or to the general reader, as sources of well-digested and accurate knowledge of the subjects of which they treat. One of the most important canons of science warns the observer and investigator, in entering upon any difficult work, to guard against any preconception of what he is going to see or what conclusion he is going to reach. Another warns him against hasty generalizations. The best scientific workers of the day are so averse to setting forth theories in advance of having completed a sound basis for them, that they are quite content to let men of less reputation win the doubtful glory of having been the first to devise an explanation of some new fact. These canons Mr. Lockyer habitually violates. In making observations he is too much under the influence of preconceived theories to permit of confidence in his work until after it has been confirmed by others.

Eight years ago Mr. Lockyer propounded his "meteoritic hypothesis," that comets and nebulæ are formed of loose collections of countless small bodies, like meteorites, which are

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constantly colliding with each other, and thus, by "striking fire," give off the light by which we see them. Two streams of such bodies may come into collision, and then we see a new star. There is probably not a competent authority in the world who maintains this theory to be probable; even its possibility is yet to be proved, yet Mr. Lockyer continues to write of it as if it had a prima-facie case in its favor, and makes it the basis of many of his explanations of celestial phenomena.

The immediate occasion of the present work seems to have been the discovery within the past three or four years of several new elements, notably argon and helium. The latter was inferred to exist in the sun, but was first found on the earth in the rare Norwegian mineral *cleveite*. The characteristic of the work, as of others by the same author, is the predominance of argument. An immense array of facts are marshalled with great ability, but they are set forth rather to form the basis of argument than to group them into an orderly body of knowledge. In consequence, it is impossible to make an intelligible summary of what the book contains, or what the reader may gather by its perusal, beyond the obvious fact that the author is still an adherent of the meteoritic hypothesis. The latter is mentioned or assumed in some form at every step, its truth being taken for granted, and its consequences traced out as if it were an accepted principle. The title of the book seems somewhat misleading. Only on the last page of the book have we been able to find anything about the sun's place in nature; and the one sentence that contains the statement has the air of being put in to justify the title.

The Grand Tactics of Chess. By Franklin K. Young. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1893.

It has been said of a recent history of Napoleon that, whatever the reader may think of the writer's opinions, he must admit that his illustrations are beyond reproach. And so Mr. Young's readers may thank him for a multitude of diagrams, which in many cases elucidate an otherwise incomprehensible text. Chess is so complex a game that it is the first duty of a writer on the subject to follow the excellent advice given by the late Master of Balliol College—"not to write anything that is not perfectly intelligible and which cannot be expressed in words without symbols." From this point of view, what can be said of the following sentence, which is taken at random, and is neither better nor worse than hundreds of others in the book? "White occupies the logistic horizon, thus opening communication with the kindred hypothetical force, and enabling a portion of the latter to enter the topographical zone and effect a junction with the kindred determinate force, the united forces being the greater force as compared with the adverse determinate force." To the average chess-player this statement is almost as puzzling as elementary education to a Tammany Mayor. It may be that in some of his other writings Mr. Young has given a vocabulary of this new language, but he can hardly expect his readers to undertake such preliminary training without protest. What makes his peculiarities particularly annoying is the fact that he is really a fine player, and that his theories, as far as they can be gleaned from diagrams, are both sound and useful. We can only hope that he may find it to his advantage to descend to the vernacular.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Sarah L., and Gilbert, Charles B. A Reader for Fifth Grades. Boston: Silver, Burdett & Co.
Baedeker, Karl. Egypt. Handbook for Travellers. 4th ed. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $4.50.
Brailsford, H. N. The Broom of the War God. Appletons.
Carlyle, Thomas. Frederick the Great. Vols. III. and IV. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. $2.50.
D'Annunzio, Gabriele. The Maidens of the Rocks. G. H. Richmond & Son. $1.50.
Day, Lewis F. Windows: A Book about Stained and Painted Glass. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $10.50.
Dickens, Charles. The Old Curiosity Shop. 2 vols. Christmas Books. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners.
Fuller, H. B. From the Other Side. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
George, Henry. The Science of Political Economy. Doubleday & McClure Co. $2.50.
Gilman, Theodore. A Graded Banking System. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Harte, Bret. Tales of Trail and Town. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hazell's Annual for 1898. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Johnson, Prof. C. F. Elements of Literary Criticism. Harpers. 80c.
Margueritte, Paul and Victor. The Disaster. Appletons. $1.50.
Morgan, Harriet. The Sandman. Cincinnati: The Editor Publishing Co.
Orzesko, Eliza. Meir Ezofovitch. New York: W. L. Allison Co.
Peattie, Elia W. The Love of a Caliban. A Romantic Opera in One Act. Wausau, Wis.: Van Vechten & Ellis.
Poor, Agnes B. Boston Neighbors. Putnams. $1.25.
Sharpless, Isaac. A Quaker Experiment in Government. Philadelphia: Alfred J. Ferris. $1.50.
Smith, Miss Nora A. The Children of the Future. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Spillane, Rowena W. Shakespeare, Dickens, and Scott: Storyettes for the Children. Galveston: Clarke & Courts. $1.
Statham, H. H. Modern Architecture: A Book for Architects and the Public. Scribners. $3.
Story, A. T. The Building of the British Empire. 2 vols. [Story of the Nations.] Putnams. $3.
Swift, Lindsay. The Great Debate—Hayne and Webster. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40c.
The Annual American Catalogue, 1897. New York: Publishers' Weekly.
The Year's Art. 1898. Compiled by A. C. R. Carter. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.; New York: Brentanos. $1.40.
Ussher, R. Neo-Malthusianism. London: Gibbings & Co.
Walton, Prof. J. S., and Brumbaugh, Prof. M. G. Stories of Pennsylvania. American Book Co. 60c.
Williamson, Mrs. Harcourt. The Barn Stormers. F. A. Stokes Co. 75c.
Younghusband, Capt. G. J. Indian Frontier Warfare. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners. $3.50.

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